

The Influence of Construal Fit on Entrepreneurial Behavior – An Experimental Study

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Abstract

In an increasingly competitive environment, staying innovative is crucial for most industries. One of the main sources of such innovation in large organizations is the employee. Multiple studies have contributed in this matter including how important commitment and entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior are. Recently, the importance of construal fit building on the construal level theory has been highlighted with regard to the roots of such matters. The present empirical study aims to further understand and advance construal level theory by extending it to the metalevel of perception and looking into how it affects commitment toward the employer and employee entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior. Specifically, I assess the relationship between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior via the mediating mechanism of affective commitment. Additionally, I examine what role regulatory focus plays. Manifested in promotion and prevention focus, it has been hypothesized to modulate different types of behavior. Therefore, the moderating effect of regulatory focus on the foregoing relationship is suggested.

A survey among a sample of mostly business students in a Finnish university is conducted. The analysis is based on a final sample of forty-eight students mostly pursuing a master's degree. A between-subject approach is applied, in which perceived construal fit is manipulated by using vignettes. An exploratory and a confirmatory factor analysis support the suggested model and scales with minor issues regarding discriminant validity. Hierarchical regression analyses yielded partial support for the mediation model with employee entrepreneurial behavior as a dependent variable. Specifically, higher perceived construal fit is associated with higher affective commitment and, in turn, with higher entrepreneurial behavior. This is also supported by the result of the indirect effect displayed in Hayes' PROCESS tool. The mere perception of construal fit is thus supported as a mechanism. However, such support is neither found for entrepreneurial intention nor for any moderated mediation model. A post-hoc analysis further lends support to these results while also suggesting that both types of regulatory focus may play a positive role. Notwithstanding a few limitations, this study hence generates insights into the mechanism of the interplay of construal levels, including an extension to the mere perception of it, affective commitment and entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior.

Keywords Affective commitment, construal level theory, employee entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial behavior, entrepreneurial intention, perceived construal fit, prevention focus, promotion focus, regulatory focus

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|----|
| Abstract..... | I |
| List of Tables | IV |
| List of Figures..... | V |
| List of Abbreviations | VI |
| 1 Introduction | 1 |
| 1.1 Study background and significance | 1 |
| 1.2 Theoretical relevance and gaps | 2 |
| 1.3 Study contributions | 4 |
| 1.4 Structure of this empirical study | 5 |
| 2 Theoretical Background and Hypotheses | 6 |
| 2.1 The effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment | 7 |
| 2.2 On affective commitment..... | 11 |
| 2.3 The effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment | 11 |
| 2.4 On regulatory focus theory | 13 |
| 2.5 The moderating role of promotion focus on the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment | 15 |
| 2.6 The moderating role of prevention focus on the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment..... | 16 |
| 2.7 On the difference between employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior | 18 |
| 2.8 The mediating role of affective commitment between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial intention | 19 |
| 2.9 On employee entrepreneurial behavior | 21 |
| 2.10 The mediating role of affective commitment between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial behavior | 22 |
| 2.11 On the first part of the mediation relationship | 23 |
| 3 Method..... | 24 |
| 3.1 Study design and sample..... | 25 |
| 3.2 Procedure | 27 |
| 3.3 Measures | 30 |
| 3.4 Measurement validation..... | 35 |

| | | |
|-----|---|-----|
| 3.5 | Method of analysis | 38 |
| 4 | Results | 39 |
| 4.1 | Preliminary data analysis | 39 |
| 4.2 | Procedure and first step of analysis..... | 40 |
| 4.3 | Second step of the mediation | 41 |
| 4.4 | Third step of the mediation | 45 |
| 4.5 | Post-hoc analysis | 51 |
| 5 | General Discussion | 53 |
| 5.1 | Theoretical implications..... | 53 |
| 5.2 | Practical implications | 56 |
| 5.3 | Limitations and future research..... | 59 |
| 6 | Conclusion | 62 |
| | References | VII |
| | Appendices | XIX |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1. Independent sample t-test. | 30 |
| Table 2. Ordinary least squares regression predicting affective commitment. | 41 |
| Table 3. Second part of analysis including employee entrepreneurial intention. | 45 |
| Table 4. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial intention moderated by prevention focus. | 47 |
| Table 5. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial intention moderated by promotion focus. | 47 |
| Table 6. Moderated mediation results predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior. .. | 49 |
| Table 7. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial behavior moderated by prevention focus. | 50 |
| Table 8. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial behavior moderated by promotion focus. | 51 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 1. Conceptual model of this empirical study..... | 6 |
| Figure 2. Plot of the interaction of perceived construal fit and +/- one standard deviation of promotion focus. | 43 |
| Figure 3. Plot of the interaction of perceived construal fit and +/- one standard deviation of prevention focus. | 44 |

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | | |
|----------|---|---|
| AIC | - | Akaike information criterion |
| χ^2 | - | Chi-square |
| CFI | - | Comparative fit index |
| df | - | Degrees of freedom |
| IFI | - | Incremental fit index |
| RMSEA | - | Root mean square error of approximation |
| TLI | - | Tucker-Lewis Index |

1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I introduce the relevant topics and why they are of relevance. Additionally, I point out the research questions and consequently how this study contributes to the academic and practical domain. Lastly, I outline the structure of this study.

1.1 Study background and significance

The importance of innovation in companies can hardly be overstated, a lack thereof may lead to obsolescence (Calantone, Cavusgil, & Zhao, 2002). While corporations try to stay innovative with think tanks, start-up labs, incubators and multiple other initiatives, start-ups nonetheless manage to outpace major established companies (Evans, 1987). Especially in the fast-paced setting of digitalization, access to an unmatched market size compared to previous decades enables fixed cost degression at a tremendous pace. This consequently offers start-ups the ability to keep up with major corporations, who traditionally held an advantage due to their established economies of scale. Prominent examples such as Zalando, Uber or Spotify demonstrate that these start-ups may disrupt and sometimes overtake large organizations. To remain competitive in the digital era, organizations have to stay innovative or improve in their ability to act innovatively. While organizations may be able to improve the skill to facilitate and harvest employees' innovativeness, the employee remains the fundamental key resource and, hence, is highly essential to the mechanism of innovation (Kanter, 1984).

Because of its importance on organizational outcomes, the phenomenon of entrepreneurial behavior within corporations has been a widely studied concept ever since its emergence in the 1980s (e.g. Pinchot III, 1985). Subsequent to a conceptualization phase, academic literature in the 1990s shifted towards tangible results of employee entrepreneurship such as financial and growth implications (Zahra & Covin, 1995; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001). Contemporary literature increasingly focuses on root causes and finds somewhat ambiguous results with regard to what type of leadership delivers the best results (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). On the one hand, vague messages can be more effective for employee performance, especially when used in visionary contexts. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). On the other hand, feedback was shown to be more fruitful at least in the short-term when concrete (Goodman, Wood, & Hendrickx, 2004). Construal fit, rooted in construal level theory first conceptualized by Liberman and Trope (1998), combines these concepts by showing that their effectiveness depends on the circumstance

(Berson, Halevy, Shamir, & Erez, 2015). For instance, job satisfaction and group commitment are higher when concrete calls for action are suggested by hierarchically proximate supervisors and vice versa, abstract calls for action are expressed by hierarchically distant supervisors (Berson & Halevy, 2014). This empirical study advances construal fit by focusing on the perspective of the employee.

Closely related to the employee's decision to engage in entrepreneurial behavior is affective commitment, as it was shown to have several positive outcomes that may act as antecedents for entrepreneurial behavior. These include lower turnover, increased attendance and better performance (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Hence, this study explores the idea that perceived construal fit has a positive impact on commitment, which consequently predicts entrepreneurial behavior. This may provide insights into what fundamentally motivates employees to engage in entrepreneurial behavior. While few recent studies such as Chen, Mitchell, Brigham, Howell and Steinbauer (2018) have explored the link between construal fit and entrepreneurial behavior, to my knowledge no study has explored an indirect effect via commitment. As commitment was hypothesized to be influenced by motivation-based individual differences (Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010), the present empirical study also considers regulatory focus as a moderating variable. This is also consistent with literature indicating cross-sectional commonalities between commitment and motivation (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004)

1.2 Theoretical relevance and gaps

There are essentially four research strains explored and enhanced in this study. First, there is construal level theory, which is rather in a youthful state since its early advancements (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). After a conceptualization phase (Trope & Liberman, 2010), there were multiple studies pointing out different outcomes of construal levels, mostly focusing on the impact of a construal fit as opposed to a misfit (Berson et al., 2015). For instance, distant hierarchical positions in organizations were shown to induce rather abstract construal levels (Lammers, Galinsky, Gordijn, & Otten, 2012; Magee & Smith, 2013). In the case of leadership, matching construal levels were demonstrated to lead to more positive outcomes (Berson & Halevy, 2014). While this effect was illustrated to take place on psychological distances, few studies looked at the validity of the three other types of distances such as Henderson and Waksalak (2010) did for spatial distance. Additionally, there have been calls to look into the role of regulatory focus on the effects of construal fit

(Berson & Halevy, 2014). Few studies tried to establish such a connection (Pennington & Roesse, 2003), but only with limited coupling to leadership or employee entrepreneurial behavior.

Second, this study looks into the domains of leadership and entrepreneurship. The former clearly being in a mature stage (Hunt & Dodge, 2000), entrepreneurship has been categorized as earlier in the evolution at a growth stage (Busenitz et al., 2003). Their close relationship was not only connected with meta-reviews (Cogliser & Brigham, 2004), but also through different subdomains including employee entrepreneurship (de Jong, Parker, Wennekers, & Wu, 2015). For instance, employees were shown to be essential in any organization focusing on innovative activities with leaders simultaneously being in an important guiding role (Covin & Slevin, 2002; Ireland, Covin, & Kuratko, 2009). While some studies have linked construal fit to commitment (Berson & Halevy, 2014) and to entrepreneurial behavior (Chen et al., 2018; Hallam, Zanella, Dosamantes, & Cardenas, 2016), to my knowledge none have considered an indirect link via commitment. Because employee entrepreneurial behavior has as a multitude of positive outcomes (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Zahra & Covin, 1995), further understanding the root cause of this behavior is a key contribution of this study and consistent with recent efforts of academic literature (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018).

This link to commitment also constitutes the third important research domain that this empirical study looks into. Commitment was conceptualized in various ways and can be split into three types (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The continuance type revolves around perceived costs of leaving the organization, the normative type describes a moral constituent to remain in it and the affective type relates to emotional attachment. While the first two can be of relevance in a practical environment, only the latter one is looked at in this study. Affectively committed employees are more likely to have a sense of belonging through internalized motivation and a higher degree of identification (Johnson et al., 2010; Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Commitment was shown to be modulated heavily by the fourth important domain of this study – regulatory focus (Johnson et al., 2010). This concept is largely conceptualized by Higgins (1997; 1998). Similar to construal level theory, this is a rather young domain of academic research that has manifested itself by demonstrating that both types

of regulatory focus have a meaningful impact on various domains (Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012). For instance, with regard to work-related outcomes, regulatory focus was shown to effectuate different types of emotional feelings, influence productivity as well as safety performance (Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier, 2009) and to be aligned with motivation theory (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). A relatively recent call pointed out the gap of construal fit and the relevance of regulatory focus (Berson & Halevy, 2014).

In this empirical study, I connect the four mentioned concepts. The key premise is whether the mere perception of construal fit has an influence on entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior. Additionally, I analyze what role affective commitment and regulatory focus have in this. Specifically, I examine the following two main research questions: Does the perception of construal fit have a positive influence on entrepreneurial behavior or intention through the mediator affective commitment? Additionally, does promotion focus moderate this relationship negatively and does prevention focus moderate it positively?

1.3 Study contributions

By linking the suggested four domains and enhancing them through elevating construal level theory to the metalevel of perception, this empirical study aims to contribute to all of them, albeit the main focus remains on construal level theory and employee entrepreneurial behavior. Specifically, I aim to be conducive with four main impacts. First, I seek to contribute to academic research on construal fit (Trope & Liberman, 2010). While there are a few studies that extended construal fit to the metalevel of mere perception (e.g. Berson & Halevy, 2014), to my knowledge, there is no study that explicitly takes this objective as the primary research target. By expanding this framework to perception, this study supports multiple findings and increases their importance by adding this metalevel. Construal fit per se was found to, for instance, decrease response time (Bar-Anan, Liberman, & Trope, 2006), increase credibility of arguments (Fujita, Eyal, Chaiken, Trope, & Liberman, 2008) and raise appeal to voters (Kim, Rao, & Lee, 2009). Given the perception of construal fit is more frequently construed than the direct one through passive interactions, this contribution could potentially be important.

Second, I contribute to the literature of commitment by connecting it to construal fit and employee entrepreneurship. I show that affective commitment mediates the relationship of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial behavior. This supports

Berson and Halevy's (2014) study, because it advances the effect of perceived construal fit by connecting it to affective commitment and entrepreneurial behavior. Other underlying indirect effects of, for instance, job satisfaction and strong leadership are further indicated (Fujita et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2002).

Third, it challenges the theory of regulatory focus. While admittedly the sample size is not sufficiently large to make a highly confident judgment, I imply with this study that neither promotion nor prevention focus has a large impact on affective commitment, which previous studies suggested (Markovits, Ullrich, van Dick, & Davis, 2008; Johnson et al., 2010). Additionally, the moderation of the overall mediation was largely not visible, which further supports this. This is also in conflict with studies that suggested that regulatory focus modulates all behavior (Meyer et al., 2002). Merely the post-hoc analysis finds some support for a moderating mechanism.

Lastly, this empirical study offers practical implications. As the most significant result, affective commitment seems to play an important role in engaging employees in innovative activities and encouraging them to expend additional resources for entrepreneurial activities. This could be highly valuable as companies should foster these activities for financial gains and growth (Zahra & Covin, 1995; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001). This study shows that not only construal fit, but also the perception of it is important to create such a commitment. While construal fit is dependent on the self and thus a subjective matter, the perception of it is influenced by others (Trope & Liberman, 2010). This further highlights the importance for companies to emphasize a communication culture according to construal fit, because one could argue that the mere perception is built more often through multiple interactions with colleagues on a daily basis.

1.4 Structure of this empirical study

To enable a better understanding of this empirical study, I offer an outline of it in the following paragraph. In the subsequent second chapter, I introduce all relevant topics by embedding them in the literature. To offer a more insightful theoretical chapter, it is combined with hypotheses and the underlying argumentation. In chapter three, I go into detail regarding the methodology of this empirical study. This includes the experiment design and a description of the sample. Additionally, I provide an in-depth explanation of the original measures, the modified scales I used and the procedures employed to get to these. This consequently also encompasses an analysis of convergent and discriminant validity

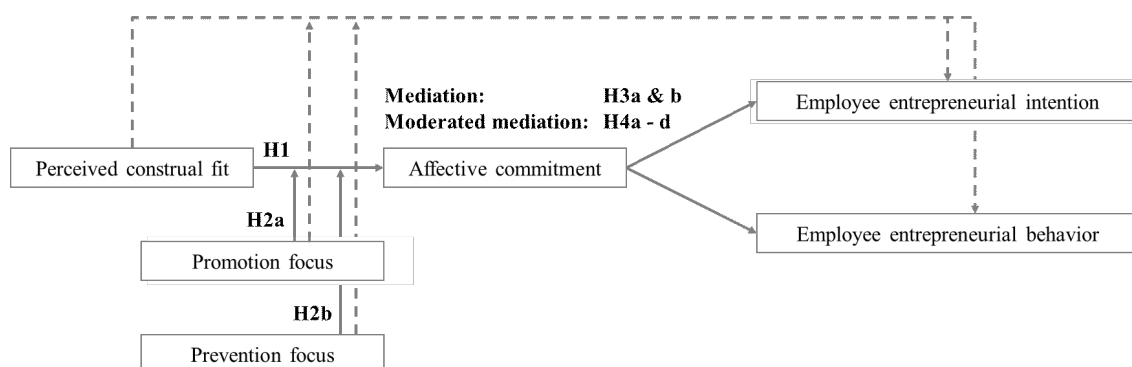
as well as of the model fit. Subsequent to this, in chapter four, the results of the models are presented in two steps. This includes the first stage of the mediation with the variables perceived construal fit, regulatory focus and affective commitment. Additionally, a visualization in the form of a plot is presented. Afterwards, the mediation and the results with employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior as respective independent variables is shown. Lastly, the outcome of a post-hoc analysis is explained. In chapter five, I discuss the findings from the main as well as the post-hoc analysis. While going into detail about why proposed effects occurred but also pointing out possible underlying reasons why they did not, I try to generate implications that I connect to the academic as well as practical domain. Moreover, I point out limitations of this study and propose future research possibilities. In the concluding chapter six, I concisely showcase the purpose of this study, what kind of methods I used and what results and thus insights I found. I also succinctly summarize the discussion, limitations and main avenues for future research.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

In this chapter, I elaborate on my hypotheses in conjunction with underlying literature research. As can be observed in the following conceptual model in Figure 1, this study is structured in four parts that are explained in each of the following subchapters. The model consists of a first stage dual moderated mediation, i.e. perceived construal fit is suggested to have an indirect influence on employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior via affective commitment, which is proposed to be moderated by regulatory focus. The dotted line indicates that in addition to the suggested mediation, a direct effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior may occur.

Figure 1. Conceptual model of this empirical study.

Notes: — = indirect effect and moderated mediation; - - = direct effect and moderation.



First, I review literature on construal level theory and affective commitment and hypothesize that a perception of construal fit has a positive influence on the latter. Subsequent to this I build on literature on why and how regulatory focus could moderate this relationship and hypothesize that promotion focus has a negative and prevention focus a positive effect. Third, I analyze underlying literature and consequently the reasoning for why I hypothesize that affective commitment has a positive effect on employee entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior. This leads to my hypothesis of an indirect effect of perceived construal fit on said behavior and intention via the mediating mechanism of affective commitment. Lastly, I hypothesize that promotion focus moderates this mediation negatively, whereas I hypothesize that prevention focus does so positively.

2.1 The effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment

The primary framework for this empirical study is that of construal fit, which goes back to its earliest version in the form of temporal construal theory identified by Liberman and Trope (1998) and in turn builds on construal level theory (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). In their study, the authors argued that decisions made on a daily basis are based on differing temporal distances. More distant events are construed on a higher level, whereas closer events are construed on a lower level. In a more thorough summary, Trope and Liberman (2010) contended that in general all thought-processes that are connected to actions and objects can be split into these two hierarchical levels. Each such action or object has a superordinate and subordinate level with the former representing an abstract level and the latter a concrete one.

In general, abstract levels differ from concrete ones with regard to the two aspects centrality and subordination (Trope & Liberman, 2010). The former, centrality, refers to altering a high-level feature as having more of an influence on the meaning of an action or object than changing a low-level feature. For instance, the meaning of a job would change more when a high-ranking manager is replaced than when computer hardware in the office is updated. This indicates that the manager is of a higher level than the hardware. The latter, subordination, applies to low-level aspects depending more on high level than high-level ones do so on low-level. For instance, the content of a business training is always important independent of the location of it. On the other hand, the importance of the location is highly dependent on the content of the business training. This shows that content is construed on a higher level than the location of business training.

Moreover, higher construal levels omit and simultaneously convey additional information. This emerges from a top-down and conceptually-driven process, which simplifies reality based on one's prior knowledge (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). For instance, the term 'working' is an abstract form of 'doing a task'. It represents a higher-level construal by omitting information and being more ambiguous, e.g. overlooking the fact that a specific task is performed. At the same time, it implies additional information such as generating income, collecting experience and more. The process of elevating the construal level, thus, not only implies a more general meaning but also conveys additional information. This occurs due to perception being mediated by interpretative faculties of our brain (Fiske & Taylor, 1991).

Actions and objects are inherently construed on different levels. Indeed, construal levels refer to "the perception of *what* will occur: The processes that give rise to the representation of the event itself" (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 442). Moreover, construal-level theory claims that the construal of levels may have an effect on psychological distance. Through metacognitive inference, individuals can presume the psychological distance of objects or actions (Schwarz & Clore, 2007 as cited by Trope & Liberman, 2010). Contrary to construal level, psychological distance refers to the "perception of *when* an event occurs, *where* it occurs, to *whom* it occurs, and *whether* it occurs" (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 442). Therefore, construal levels may influence psychological distances in four separate dimensions: Temporal, spatial, social and hypotheticality.

The concept of construal fit. Similar to the thought-process connecting to actions and objects, individuals' behavior can be considered to represent a certain degree of abstractness or concreteness. Stephan, Liberman and Trope (2010) for instance found that individuals tend to use more formal language when getting acquainted with strangers than communicating with friends who they have known for a longer period of time. Merely by using a more formal way of communicating individuals tend to infer social distance. This mechanism also applies to hierarchies in organizations, where individuals tend to organize information on a more abstract degree with higher social distance induced by power (Smith & Trope, 2006). The idea of construal fit incorporates this concept, by for instance combining the construal level of stimuli with the social distance between the stimuli's deliverer and recipient. Similar to Berson and Halevy (2014), a construal fit in this em-

pirical study constitutes a state where the degree of abstractness of an individual's communication matches the degree of his or her social status. For instance, when a leader communicates with subordinates in an abstract way, this would constitute a construal fit. Notwithstanding this definition, because the four dimensions are construed by individuals and thus dependent on the self, perceived psychological distance is subjective and may vary (Trope & Liberman, 2010).

Construal fit in organizations. For the purpose of this empirical study, the focus lies on the social distance represented by hierarchy in an organization. As mentioned, an employee may perceive the social distance to a team or business unit leader as higher than to a colleague. Consequently, hierarchical positions may be taken as a proxy of social distance due to this perceived psychological distance. Additional to social distance, a stimuli's matter may be of relevance to construal fit. This can be represented by communication style in terms of content. In general, the perceived degree of concreteness or abstractness of content may depend on any of the four dimensions (Berson et al., 2015). For instance, in hypothetical terms, while abstractness would refer to improbable events, those deemed as probable would constitute concrete ones. The same concept could apply to temporal distance, where short-term events would be construed as concrete and long-term ones would be construed as abstract. Combined, this would mean communicating visionary elements would be categorized as abstract due to their hypothetical and rather long-term character, while communicating specific targets would be categorized as concrete due to their rather high tangibility and short-term orientation (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Coupling the aspects of hierarchy and interaction, a construal fit is dependent on the social distance between two individuals communicating and the content of this communication. Therefore, large hierarchical, i.e. social, distance would only be considered as a construal fit, if this distance were matched by abstract content in terms of one or more of the named dimensions, e.g. visionary subject matter. Conversely, a low social distance would have to be matched by concrete content to constitute a construal fit, e.g. specific targets to be achieved.

Perception of construal fit. The present empirical study extracts this mechanism of an individual communicating and, hence, creating a construal fit or misfit based on the four dimensions and rather takes another perspective. It adds the metalevel of perception of construal fit. Thus, the fit is not construed in the individual's mind directly through the

experience of the interaction, but indirectly through another individual conveying his or her opinion of a construal fit or misfit. The secondary individual judges something as a fit or misfit and passes this information on to the subject at hand. This primary individual, thus, merely indirectly perceives it as such. For instance, in a company there are multiple scenarios in which employees may engage with other colleagues about topics including other people's communication styles. During these conversations, construal fit may be described by the colleague and thus an impression may be formed by the employee. This impression, i.e. perception, of a construal fit is directly dependent on the colleague's opinion.

Therefore, the focus of this empirical study targets the influence of one colleague's opinion of a construal fit or misfit on another employee. In other words, I aim to examine whether the perception of such a fit or misfit can be induced merely by a colleague stating his or her opinion and what effect this has on different outcomes. Despite the fact that construal fit has been demonstrated to have various impacts, when asked why individuals reacted the way they did, most likely they would not know the answer to this. In general, people tend to experience their knowledge of a matter to be of far better precision and depth than it veritably is, which was coined as the illusion of explanatory depth (Rozenblit & Keil, 2002). Because construal fit is a rather intuitive concept that individuals undergo without comprehensive understanding, this could also hold true for the perception of construal fit. When a colleague would explain an individual convincingly that for a number of reasons the leader's communication style is appropriate, according to this theory and given the colleague's arguments are reasonable, he or she would likely believe and internalize this.

This mechanism of indirect influences shaping an individual's perception was affirmed by a few studies. Wakslak's (2007 as cited by Wakslak, Nussbaum, Liberman, & Trope, 2008) study suggested that forcing individuals to undertake high-risk decisions causes them to perceive themselves as risk-takers. Additionally, more formal language was shown to induce subjects to perceive a larger social distance (Stephan et al., 2010). Furthermore, Shamir (1995) demonstrated that subjects perceive certain traits to be more viable than others according to the hierarchical position of the leader. Katz and Kahn (1978 as cited by Cole, Bruch, & Shamir, 2009) also showed that socially more distant leaders are perceived as more powerful and those socially closer ones as more fallible.

These studies lead to the conclusion that perceptions can be formed indirectly. Berson and Halevy (2014) demonstrated that perception can also take place in the domain of construal fit. They implied that even in a fictional setting with limited self-relevance, hierarchical distance in combination with content-varying messages predicts the perception of construal fit.

2.2 On affective commitment

I argue that one possible outcome of this perception may be a direct effect on commitment of an employee toward the organization. This follows Berson and Halevy's (2014) notion of construal fit affecting organizational commitment and social bonding. In a work-related context, commitment consists of a psychological bond that employees have with a certain goal connected to their job, most commonly toward the success of the organization they are a member of (Klein, Molloy, & Cooper, 2012). Early research by Allen and Meyer (1990) identified that commitment can be split into the three types affective, continuance and normative commitment. The authors further showed that the affective type relates to an emotional attachment and leads to identification and involvement with, for instance, an organization. The continuance type revolves around the perceived costs that are associated with leaving the respective company. The third type, namely normative commitment, reflects the moral constituent to be obligated to remain in the organization. As this empirical study focuses on a hypothetical scenario in which subjects are imagining themselves to be employed in a fictional company, only the first of the three seems reasonable to be further analyzed. While affective commitment displays a type of emotional attachment and thus could be valid in a hypothetical scenario, the perceived costs or moral constituents associated with leaving a hypothetical company would most likely be difficult to relate to. Additionally, as opposed to normative or continuance, affective commitment builds on self-determined motivations of internalization and identification (Johnson et al., 2010). In other words, it leads employees to be more likely to have a sense of belonging (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Therefore, this study focuses on an affectively committed employee, who in general "identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2).

2.3 The effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment

While research is sparse on this topic, there are some preliminary studies that connected perceived construal fit to these three aspects of affective commitment at least indirectly.

With regard to the dimension of *identification*, Meyer et al. (2002) for instance found a significant correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment in their meta-study. They argued that some of satisfaction measures include aspects concerning approval of the organization itself. Thus, if perceived construal fit had an influence on job satisfaction, commitment would also likely be affected due to increased identification by the individual. Interestingly, Berson and Halevy (2014) demonstrated that construal fit has a significant positive effect on job satisfaction. Combined with Meyer et al.'s (2002) study, this shows that construal fit at least has an indirect effect on affective commitment through positively influencing job satisfaction, which may lead to higher approval of the organization and thus to higher identification. Additionally, Fisher (2010) found job satisfaction to positively contribute to work engagement, which is by definition related to affective commitment's dimension of identification. Moreover, Meyer et al. (2002) indicated that role ambiguity as well as role conflict have a negative predicting effect on affective commitment. This very aspect may be influenced by a misalignment of construal levels. When a perceived construal misfit is present, employees may be confused and possibly develop an ambiguity towards their own role, which hence could lead to a disaffection towards the organization. This disaffection, in turn, may result in a lower identification with the organization, producing lower affective commitment. Consequently, a construal fit may decrease feelings of role ambiguity and lead to higher identification.

With regard to the dimension of *involvement*, Berson and Halevy (2014) demonstrated that construal fit has a significant positive influence on group commitment. Interestingly, they also found that group commitment in fact decreased when a construal misfit was present. Another study found that followers are more likely to have heightened motivation and willingness to expend resources, when they perceive that a socially-distant leader uses a congruent type of speech (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). This could be linked to individuals being more involved in a project or organization, when they experience a construal fit. Moreover, Lee, Keller and Sternthal (2010) linked construal fit to an increased emotional reaction. In their study, they found that after priming a construal level, individuals tend to become more engaged when the level of abstractness of the message matches the primed construal level of thought. This engagement may transfer into involvement. While this only showed the direct effect of construal fit on

involvement and, hence, affective commitment, I claim that this also holds true for perception.

This last study's outcome also connects to the last dimension of affective commitment, i.e. *enjoyment of membership*. According to the study's outcome, given a baseline positive emotion was present, this emotion would be intensified and thus raised through construal fit. Another argument is that construal fit indicates organizational support and thus raises affective commitment through individuals' enjoyment of their tasks knowing that they are encouraged. For instance, Meyer et al.'s (2002) meta-study found a high positive correlation between organizational support in the role of an antecedent and affective commitment. The authors argued that supportive work environment is a facilitative instrument for commitment to develop. This is supported by Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LeMastro (1990) as well as Fisher (2010), who indeed demonstrated supportive functions at work to be linked to job satisfaction and work enjoyment. Enjoying work would consequently not only lead to an increased level of identification, but also to enjoying membership in the organization facilitating this work. One underlying mechanism for this supportive work environment to arise could be strong leadership, which in turn may be affected by a construal fit. Indeed, Fujita et al. (2008) confirmed that arguments' degree of persuasiveness increases when they are construed on the same level as temporal distance. While this does not support the perception argument, it nevertheless shows the influence of construal fit of leadership's communication style on individuals. Specifically, employees could be more likely to assume the present leadership as aligned and competent in their position. This improved alignment in turn can be interpreted as a competent organizational environment and hence increase affective commitment.

In summary, construal fit may heighten among other outcomes job satisfaction, group commitment and leadership satisfaction. Simultaneously, it decreases role ambiguity. These consequently are linked to increased identification, involvement and enjoyment of membership in the organization. I claim that the mere perception of construal fit also facilitates some of these effects resulting in commitment. This leads to the hypothesis that the mere perception of construal fit has a positive impact on affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1. Perceived construal fit is positively associated with affective commitment.

2.4 On regulatory focus theory

Regulatory focus theory goes back to Higgins's (1997; 1998) studies that contended that individuals modulate their behavior based on two patterns – a promotion or a prevention focus. These dimensions are independent of each other, i.e. it is possible for an individual to exhibit high levels of either, both or neither foci (Johnson et al., 2010), which supports a separate analysis of them. When individuals are promotion-focused, they tend to emphasize the positive side of the outcome by envisioning their ideal selves, which consequently drives them to pursue growth needs to align the current and aspired self. Hence, they are more concerned with achievement and growth, where the “strategic inclination is to make progress by approaching matches to the desired end-state” (Crowe & Higgins, 1997, p. 120).

On the other hand, a prevention focus makes the loss side more salient by individuals' safety concerns impelling them to align their current selves with a desired self, characterized by responsibility rather than dreams (Brockner, Higgins, & Low, 2004). With a prevention focus, individuals forgo pursuing unknown alternatives to avoid mistakes, i.e. they have a strategic inclination to be “prudent and precautionary and avoid mismatches to the desired end-state” (Crowe & Higgins, 1997, p. 120). Thus, they are more concerned with maintaining security and safeguarding surety.

In addition to an inherent predisposition, regulatory focus may also depend on the type of situation an individual is involved in (Higgins, 2012). The situation is relevant with regard to the three different dimensions motive to be achieved, nature of the goal and type of outcome salient to the individual (Brockner et al., 2004). Studies showed that the type of regulatory focus has a significant effect on various outcomes. For instance, Shah, Higgins and Friedman (1998) found that in a simple task, results can differ with better performance in terms of monetary outcome linked to a regulatory focus framing. They argued that opportunity for accomplishments in terms of gaining money appeals to those individuals trying to reach their ideals, whereas oughts in terms of not losing status quo appeals to the safety concern of prevention-focused individuals. In the context of work-related commitment, outcomes may vary depending on the underlying goal associated with that commitment. Employees may identify with goals facilitated by the organization or they may appreciate the security provided by their membership in that organization (Wallace et al., 2009). Regulatory focus, thus, can be argued to have a decisive role in this identification and appreciation process.

2.5 The moderating role of promotion focus on the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment

In this study, I claim that promotion focus has a negative effect on the relation of perceived construal fit on affective commitment. First, I argue that construal fit does not affect promotion-focused individuals to the same degree as those without, because they are affectively committed towards other dimensions. As affective commitment means that individuals have higher identification, involvement and enjoyment of being part of the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990), Hypothesis 1 argues that these are raised through perceived construal fit by for instance affecting job satisfaction (identification), group commitment (involvement) or organizational support (enjoyment of membership). I claim that employees with promotion focus are not affected by these to the same degree. Crowe and Higgins (1997) showed that promotion focus leads to eagerness as these individuals tend to choose risky outcomes, because they deem this as the best possibility for success. Higgins (2000) elaborated on this by suggesting that eagerness ensures the presence of positive outcomes, which is a high priority for promotion-focused individuals. From such an employee's perspective, identification with the organization could be influenced by the entity's eagerness ambitions rather than job satisfaction. Additionally, career paths that are becoming apparent or the fact that the company extends the scope of its business model may contribute to this. When the organization displays such eagerness or growth characteristics, promotion-focused individuals may be more inclined to enjoy being a member of it. Consequently, individuals with a promotion focus could be more likely to derive affective commitment through other mechanisms than a perceived construal fit, which would alter the impact of such perception to be less significant.

Second, I contend that promotion focuses individuals may be less affected by any one-time trigger event. This builds on the first argument and extends it from general beliefs to any events concerning construal fit, which include generic speeches as well as specific feedback from supervisors and indirect perceptions through communication with colleagues. As mentioned, when individuals are focused on gains, they are more likely to be inclined to extrinsic rewards such as monetary ones (Shah et al., 1998). This indicates that they value issues such as wage and the possibility to grow within and in conjunction with the organization, whereas issues such as culture and gratification could be less important. Consequently, when promotion-focused individuals perceive construal fit in the

form of a trigger event such as a conversation with a colleague, they would place less emphasis on it due to its rather insignificant impact on their wage or similar extrinsic dimensions. Hence, this may reduce the relevance of perception of construal fit for promotion-focused individuals.

Lastly, I claim that parts of construal fit may have a – to some extent – negative impact on affective commitment for individuals with a promotion focus. They may have less of a susceptibility to an increase of affective commitment, because such a fit constitutes strong leadership and a well-functioning organization (Berson & Halevy, 2014). This type of context potentially induces less of an increase in affective commitment to promotion-focused individuals, as these look for opportunities to engage and to offer and realize their ideas. In a well-aligned organizational environment, present career opportunities could be interpreted as less of a possibility to unfold, i.e. fewer opportunities for promotion-focused individuals to stand out and grow. While overall the effect may remain positive, I claim that this last argument based on the perspective of promotion-focused individuals lowers this positive effect due to the additional negative perception of fewer opportunities to engage in the company, resulting in less of an increase in affective commitment.

In conclusion, I argue that promotion-focused individuals are less likely to derive affective commitment from perceived construal fit than those without such focus. This is supported by these individuals placing more emphasis on extrinsic rewards and displaying less affection to this kind of organizational trigger. Lastly, perceived construal fit potentially signals less possibilities to grow and hence leads to a lower affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2a. The positive relationship between perceived construal fit and affective commitment is weaker for individuals with a high promotion focus than for those with a low promotion focus.

2.6 The moderating role of prevention focus on the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment

For prevention-focused individuals, losses are more salient and the view of success is framed rather as a nonloss than a gain (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). In this study, I claim that prevention focus increases the positive effect of perceived construal fit on affective

commitment due to three main reasons. First, I argue that those aspects potentially impacted by a perceived construal fit are precisely relevant for the affective commitment of prevention-focused individuals. For instance, job satisfaction may be raised through construal fit resulting in higher affective commitment (Berson & Halevy, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002). Contrary to individuals that regulate their behavior with a promotion focus, in Crowe and Higgins' (1997) study the individuals with a prevention focus mostly utilized well-known strategies to avoid incurring mistakes. This resulted in their conclusion that those individuals with a prevention focus insure against errors by utilizing conservative measures. When constantly on the lookout for ways to insure against errors, prevention focus may lead to a state of agitation (Higgins, 2000; Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Job satisfaction could be seen as a relieve instrument by contributing to a safe path and thus be sought after by prevention-focused individuals. When a perceived construal fit raises job satisfaction and, hence, identification and enjoyment of membership, this should be appreciated by prevention-focused individuals to a larger degree. This mechanism of ensuring safety and alleviating agitation through ensuring quiescence may also apply to supportive work functions indicated by a construal fit (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Fisher, 2010).

The same notion connects to the second argument that strong leadership indeed could be recognized as positive by prevention-focused individuals. As perceived construal fit may demonstrate strong leadership (Berson & Halevy, 2014; Fujita et al., 2008), this, in turn, shows that the organization is reliable and well-functioning. Individuals that are high in prevention focus potentially seek this, because they could be grateful for such security and comfort. This consequently raises their affective commitment to a larger degree than that of individuals without such prevention focus.

Furthermore, the idea of construal fit is a rather binary issue without a gray area, either there is a fit or a misfit (Trope & Liberman, 2010). This does not contradict the idea that it is a subjective matter, because independent of an individual's categorization it maintains its dichotomous property. Subsequent to focusing on the matter of a construal fit, I additionally point out the impact of a construal misfit in the following paragraph. I argue that for the same reasons mentioned above, a perceived construal misfit is significantly worse than a fit. Because of the relevant aspects affected by a misfit, it may raise agitation among characters high in prevention focus. This, in turn, is the opposite of the

quiescence sought by these types of individuals (Higgins, 1998). Hence, the decrease of affective commitment through a perceived construal misfit could be more pronounced for those with a high degree of prevention focus than for those with a low degree. Because a misfit scenario is more negative, inducing a perception of construal fit would consequently result in a larger discrepancy. For prevention-focused individuals, hence, the effect of a perception of construal fit would be magnified.

In conclusion, prevention focus may lead to a higher susceptibility to those dimensions affected by a perceived construal fit, an increased valuing of strong leadership and display a larger discrepancy when comparing the state of fit and misfit. Therefore, I contend that it magnifies the relationship between perceived construal fit and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2b. The positive relationship between perceived construal fit and affective commitment is stronger for individuals with a high prevention focus than for those with a low prevention focus.

2.7 On the difference between employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior

Another focus of this empirical study is employee entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior. Such behavior can be described as a rich and wide-ranging phenomenon that occurs over time with multiple steps in between (Gartner, Shaver, Gatewood, & Katz, 1994). Contrary to this, employee entrepreneurial intention can be seen as a first, initiating step in this long-term process (Lee & Wong, 2004). While behavior is the result, intention can be defined as a “self-acknowledged conviction by a person that they intend to set up a new business venture and consciously plan to do so at some point in the future” (Thompson, 2009, p. 676). For the case of this study, a business venture may also be interpreted as one inside an employee’s existing organization.

One could argue for the importance of either variable to be measured. On the one hand, intention is essential to behavior. Indeed, the absence of intention leads to a lower likelihood of pursuing action and is, hence, a suitable predictor of behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This is especially true with the multitude of obstacles incurred by employees in an organization when trying to bring ideas into practice (Siegel, Siegel, & MacMillan, 1988). Without a strong intention, it is unlikely that behavior will occur. On the other hand, intention may not capture the true effect this empirical study is trying to elicit. Intention is an indicator of behavior, but not an equivalent. Indeed, LaPiere (1934) demonstrated

early on that intention can be in sharp contrast to veritably displayed behavior. He showcased that a socially desired state and publicly stated intention of maintaining segregation can be contrary to actual behavior of inclusion. Irrespective of the underlying reason, a discrepancy between intention and behavior could also mitigate this study's results. The mentioned obstacles in organizations may in fact result in different outcomes than expected by merely looking at intention. If indeed affective commitment were to increase employee entrepreneurial intention, this would not necessarily lead to employee entrepreneurial behavior exhibited in reality. Hence, despite most likely a high correlation, I include employee entrepreneurial behavior in addition to such intention to fortify the results.

2.8 The mediating role of affective commitment between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial intention

While there have been links established between construal-level theory and leadership (e.g. Berson et al., 2015), there are only a few studies that have explicitly linked it to either affective commitment (Berson & Halevy, 2014) or to entrepreneurial intention and behavior (Chen et al., 2018; Hallam et al., 2016). To my knowledge, none have demonstrated the indirect link through affective commitment. Multiple antecedents have been identified as crucial for both intention and behavior to emerge. I argue that commitment in the affective type has a positive influence on both outcomes.

In this section, I first argue for the positive effect of it on employee entrepreneurial intention. Commitment as a broad term entails a longing to contribute to a group's welfare and, hence, showcases in and of itself a connection to the organization's outcome (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, Halevy, & Eidelson, 2008). Furthermore, in its general sense it is related to key aspects of horizontal collectivism and entails emotional feelings of bonding to a group, while increasing willingness to contribute to different outcomes at the expense of own costs (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). By identifying with as well as involving themselves in the organization and enjoying a membership in it, individuals high in affective commitment are self-determined to work towards goals of the organization and ensure its survival (Johnson et al., 2010). They are potentially more likely to intend entrepreneurial actions given survival of the firm requires innovativeness through such measures. This idea follows the leader-member exchange theory, which in work settings extends on the intrinsic motivation to fulfill the partner's role expectations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Affectively committed individuals are argued to have increased trust in the partner and

place more emphasis on this dyad relationship (Johnson et al., 2010). If the organization thus desires the employee to engage in entrepreneurial activities, those individuals higher in affective commitment could be more likely to follow this suggestion as their self-worth is contingent on fulfilling the organization's role expectations.

With regard to the effect of the second aspect of affective commitment, involvement could be argued to raise employee's intention to act entrepreneurially. Meyer et al. (2002) found that in multiple studies affective commitment leads to higher job performance, which hints at the notion of increased willingness to invest additional personal resources. This investment of additional resources is highly relevant, as work outside of the regular scope can lead to extra time and effort, for which the payoff is uncertain (Birkinshaw, 1997 as cited by Gawke, Gorgievski, & Bakker, 2018). Psychological engagement, i.e. involvement, was conceptualized to be essential by leading to an enhanced willingness to expend resources in order to achieve a specific outcome (Kahn, 1990). Moreover, confidence could play a key part, as with heightened confidence the willingness to expend resources and thus intention could be higher as confident individuals may be more self-assured of the possible outcomes. Meyer et al. (2002) linked affective commitment to confidence by demonstrating a significant positive impact of such commitment on self-reflected job performance. This enhanced self-reflection indicates that confidence increases with commitment, which could raise the initial intention to undergo the uncertain path of entrepreneurial intention.

Lastly, enjoyment of membership could contribute to entrepreneurial intention by mitigating the expected stress induced by entrepreneurial engagement. Given affective commitment and per definition enjoyment of membership was high, individuals could be more likely to tolerate the discussed extra expense. This stress is relevant in the initial stage of intention, because individuals could anticipate future scenarios and the habitual change of everyday activities to new roles and responsibilities may be stressful. Meyer et al. (2002) showed that affective commitment has a relieving effect on stress. This could be due to increased enjoyment of membership, as for instance happiness was shown to reduce perceived stress (Schiffrin & Nelson, 2010).

In summary, I contend that employees experiencing a higher affective commitment are more likely to exhibit entrepreneurial intentions within the organization as opposed to those that experience a lower one. This is due to a higher identification as well as

involvement, thus an intrinsic desire to help the organization and an inherently higher pleasure in being part of the organization and working for it. Because I also argue in Hypothesis 1 that a perceived construal fit increases affective commitment, I claim that affective commitment indeed plays a mediating part in the relationship of perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial intention.

Hypothesis 3a. Affective commitment mediates the relationship between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial intention.

2.9 On employee entrepreneurial behavior

At its core, entrepreneurial behavior inside the corporate dimension consists of the three features innovation, proactivity and risk-taking (de Jong et al., 2015). First, innovative work behavior targets the intentional initiation and implementation of novel processes or products (Farr & Ford, 1990). It thus differs from creativity through the added aspect of implementation. While creativity can be seen as an essential element to innovative work behavior, the latter is distinguished by an explicitly intended benefit (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010).

Second, proactivity can be equated to pioneering behavior by leading rather than following on emerging opportunities (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). It is essential to employee entrepreneurial behavior as it represents a forward-looking perspective with the intrinsic purpose to anticipate future trends and, thus, outcompete others (Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin, & Frese, 2009). Proactive behaviors, hence, provide a way for an organization to conform to threats and opportunities from the surrounding environment.

Third, risk-taking also applies to employee entrepreneurship, despite contrary to common entrepreneurship material losses being unlikely. It is essential as this type of behavior is required when individuals change the status quo or promote controversial ideas (Parker & Collins, 2010). Risk-taking could apply to other dimensions outside of the material spectrum such as psychological or strategic work-related issues. For instance, innovative behavior was shown to reduce satisfaction with co-worker relations (Janssen, 2003). This is reasonable as these risk-taking behaviors may occur without teammates' or supervisors' approval. In summary, these three factors are underlying to employee entrepreneurship behavior by representing individuals that seek to initiate and implement projects proactively by actively engaging in risk-taking behavior.

2.10 The mediating role of affective commitment between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial behavior

Given that affective commitment was to positively affect entrepreneurial intention, it would most likely have a similar effect on entrepreneurial behavior as these are inherently related. Following Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), independent of its type of target, commitment at its core is a force that motivates individuals to achieve a common goal, which by definition is the basis of employee entrepreneurial behavior. To further clarify the argumentation, I go into detail with regard to each of the three dimensions of entrepreneurial behavior partly utilizing the previous arguments. For instance, enjoyment of membership could lead to an increased degree of *innovative* behavior, because individuals could be inclined to find new ways of doing their work. Chughtai (2013) indeed found a positive link of these two concepts in his study. He followed Fredrickson's (2000) notion of the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, which argues that among other things joy prompts individuals to try novel ways of conducting automated behavioral paths. The link between affective commitment and innovation was demonstrated in other studies as well (e.g. Camelo-Ordaz, García-Cruz, Sousa-Ginel, & Valle-Cabrera, 2011).

This also leads to the second connection, because if individuals were to intrinsically seek new ways of conducting work due to enjoyment, they could also be more likely to do this *proactively* before being asked to do so. A study by Strauss, Griffin and Rafferty (2009) demonstrated that transformational leaders raise proactive behavior through affective commitment. They argued in congruence with the dimension of identification that such commitment raises employees' long-term orientation (Isen & Reeve, 2005) and willingness to engage in initiatives to achieve work goals (den Hartog & Belschak, 2007; Crant, 2000).

Lastly, higher affective commitment in the sense of involvement may have a positive effect on *risk-taking* behavior. Higher involvement may lead to a biased perception of surroundings by overestimating positive and underestimating negative outcome possibilities. This is similar to the forgiveness hypothesis (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998), which essentially states that loyal and in a sense more involved customers are more likely to overlook a negative incident. A study by Johnson, Sivadas and Garbarino (2008) indeed showed that affective commitment has a negative effect on perceived risk. Thus,

highly involved employees may exhibit higher entrepreneurial behavior by underestimating the attached risk that such activity entails.

In summary, I contend that affective commitment has a positive effect on all three subdimensions of entrepreneurial behavior. In combination with Hypothesis 1, I therefore claim that affective commitment acts as a mediator in the relationship of a perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial behavior.

Hypothesis 3b. Affective commitment mediates the relationship between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial behavior.

2.11 On the first part of the mediation relationship

Moderating role of promotion focus. In combination with Hypothesis 2a, which states that promotion focus negatively moderates the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment, and Hypothesis 3a and b, which state that affective commitment has a positive impact on employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior, respectively, I claim that promotion focus has a negative influence on the mediation. For instance, the first argument of Hypothesis 2a proposes that promotion-focused individuals are more likely to derive affective commitment from other mechanisms than perceived construal fit, which thus decreases the importance of perceiving such a fit. As a result, this would also have an influence on entrepreneurial intentions and behavior, because the mechanism of perceived construal fit raising affective commitment and consequently raising such intention and behavior would have less of an impact. This would additionally hold true for the other two arguments of promotion-focused individuals being less inclined to one-time triggers affecting cultural dimensions and, hence, less affected by an inappropriate leadership behavior and seeing less of an opportunity to grow and realize ideas in an organization that is perceived as having a construal fit. In summary, promotion focus would have a negative influence on the mediation.

Hypothesis 4a. Promotion focus moderates the positive and indirect effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial intention through affective commitment. Specifically, this mediation is less pronounced when promotion focus is high.

Hypothesis 4b. Promotion focus moderates the positive and indirect effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial behavior through affective commitment. Specifically, this mediation is less pronounced when promotion focus is high.

Moderating role of prevention focus. In combination with Hypothesis 2b, which states that prevention focus positively moderates the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment, and Hypothesis 3a and b, which state that affective commitment has a positive effect on employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior, respectively, I contend that prevention focus has a positive influence on the mediation. Previously, I argue that some of the aspects of affective commitment raised through a perceived construal fit are more likely to be recognized by individuals high in prevention focus as opposed to those low in it. Additionally, strong leadership indicated by a perceived construal fit could demonstrate reliability, which again could be favored by prevention-focused individuals. Lastly, I claim that the discrepancy between a fit and a misfit is much larger for these employees, because it raises agitation among other things. This discrepancy hence leads to a magnifying effect of prevention focus. As a result, this would also increase the indirect effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior through affective commitment.

Hypothesis 4c. Prevention focus moderates the positive and indirect effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial intention through affective commitment. Specifically, the mediation is more pronounced when prevention focus is high.

Hypothesis 4d. Prevention focus moderates the positive and indirect effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial behavior through affective commitment. Specifically, the mediation is more pronounced when prevention focus is high.

3 METHOD

The following chapter goes into detail about how the data was structured. After elaborating on my philosophical positioning, I describe how the study was designed and how the subject pool was composed. This includes the description of an experiment research design with two vignettes. Second, I shortly elaborate on the procedure used to arrive at meaningful values. Afterwards, I extend on my previous description of included variables

with regard to how each variable was measured, i.e. what type of scale was used, and the validation process. Lastly, I name the software tools that helped me achieve the results.

3.1 Study design and sample

Philosophical positioning. To lay the fundament for this research, I explain the underlying rationale by elaborating on my onto-epistemological viewpoint in the following paragraph. I highlight the three assumptions ontological, epistemological and methodological, which reflect my view on “what is real, what can be known, and how these social facts can be faithfully rendered” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 4). First, from an ontological perspective, this research is objectivist, which assumes that there is existence independent of mine (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Thus, as a researcher I acknowledge that there is autonomous existence outside of mine. Since I aim to answer the research questions of this study objectively, this serves the purpose of it well. This connects to my epistemological standpoint, which I identify as part of the school of research referred to as positivism. Positivist epistemology denotes that legitimate knowledge can only be generated through scientific findings (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2012). This is highly appropriate for the present quantitative research approach, because I aim to critically analyze the collected data with the highest statistical scrutiny. Such a quantitative methodological approach explores relationships among measurable constructs (Creswell, 2014), which leaves little room for interpretation. Furthermore, a survey is a suitable measure as it allows to capture attitudes of a sample of a population in a numeric manner (Creswell, 2014). The following sections explain the research setting built on this quantitative survey approach.

Structure of the questionnaire. As perceived construal fit is the main focus of this empirical study, I aimed to employ an approach that exposes two groups of subjects to a situation that ideally is relatively trivial in nature yet clearly distinguished by a perceived misfit and fit. Hence, a between-subject methodology was used with identical content but with the exception of a part containing the manipulation. This means that I utilized an experiment research design using two sets of vignettes, which were constructed with the help of my supervisor and were based on Berson and Halevy’s (2014) study. Following is an overview of how the questionnaire was set up. Both versions of the survey are displayed in Appendix 1. Each blue ribbon indicates the respective top of the webpage and, hence, simultaneously the beginning of a new page of the online survey.

Subsequent to a short introduction containing general information about the survey, an assurance of anonymity as well as confidentiality and the voluntary nature of the participant's replies, each subject was asked to respond to scales eliciting character traits. These were comprised of the moderating variables promotion and prevention focus as well as various control variables. Afterwards, approximately half of the participants ($n = 28$) read a scenario containing a description of a construal misfit, whereas the other half ($n = 33$) read a scenario with a description of a construal fit. This uneven distribution was the result of a true randomization of the division between the subsamples. In each of the settings, participants were asked to imagine themselves in a work environment of a large manufacturer as a first-day employee. This fictional company was described as a globally active producer and world leader in its product with 13,000 employees alone at the site of production. A colleague would approach the subject during a coffee break, who was described as a person that the individual knew well from a previous employer's project and, hence, whose opinion the individual would value. After asking about the company, the colleague described the team leader's communication style that he has perceived as appropriate or odd depending on the manipulation. This is further elaborated in the following section. Subsequent to these situations, a manipulation check was conducted by asking individuals to state to what degree they perceive a construal fit in this setting. Specifically, participants were asked to rank the colleague's as well as their personal opinion on construal fit and the actual team leader's degree of it, the last of which was reverse-coded. Subsequent to this, subjects were asked to rank their affective commitment toward this fictional company and to what degree they would exhibit entrepreneurial intention as well as entrepreneurial behavior.

During the survey, none of the options could be left out to avoid missing data points, which admittedly is a risk-factor but to a certain degree reasonable as the sample size would have been unnecessarily shortened. The only exception to this was the voluntary entry of an email address, which participants were able to key in subsequent to answering all the questions. Entering the email enrolled the participant in a lottery to win a Netflix voucher of 25€. Each subject was notified that should he or she choose to enter this information, the anonymity clause would no longer hold. This sweepstake incentive was equally distributed among the manipulation groups (mean difference = 0.11, $p > 0.1$; after

excluding data points). The last part of the survey contained a short message thanking the individual for taking part in this empirical study.

Manipulation. As the unique contribution of this empirical study was the mere perception of construal fit, I further elaborate on the method employed. As mentioned, a colleague approached the subject during a fictional coffee break and stated that the team leader has behaved in accordance with the hierarchical position or that the opposite has been the case. The monologue then closed with an explicit subjective judgement on the degree of construal fit of the leader's communication style. While the colleague in the construal fit scenario closed the monologue with a clear emphasis on the fit ("[h]onestly, I feel very satisfied with how he communicates with us"), the colleague describing the construal misfit did so with an unambiguous weight on the misfit ("[h]onestly, I am quite annoyed about how he communicates with us"). The aim of the manipulation and the explicit mentioning of the construal fit toward the end was to force participants to undoubtedly have perceived the situation as a construal fit or a construal misfit. This impression was consequently formed merely indirectly through the colleague rather than directly through an interaction with the team leader.

Sample characteristics. The initial subject pool consisted primarily of students ($n = 61$) from the School of Business at Aalto University. The domain of academics was chosen to be mainly focused on business students, as these were familiar with relevant terms such as entrepreneurship and were likely homogeneous in their intrinsic desire to pursue entrepreneurial roles as opposed to samples composed of individuals outside of this domain. In addition to the Netflix voucher, an incentive in the form of a hot beverage of choice was offered to speed up data collection towards the end of the data generation phase. As was the case for the lottery for the Netflix voucher, subjects taking up this offer were equally distributed among the samples (mean difference = -0.17 , $p > 0.1$; after excluding data points).

3.2 Procedure

Initial screening of the data. After preparing the survey and collecting data, an initial scanning revealed that some individuals were unlikely to have focused sufficiently on the questions at hand and thus were excluded from further analysis. These data points were composed of subjects either having failed to pass the manipulation check or not having taken adequate time to answer the survey. I identified the former mostly by relying on the

first question of the three manipulation check questions. It asked whether the colleague from the presented scenario identified the behavior of the team leader as inappropriate and thus merely asked for a trivial reproduction of the given situation with only minimal inference. Based on this, nine subjects were excluded.

Of the remaining data, the individuals had an average response time of about twenty-one minutes. To allow for ample upside deviation, an arbitrary amount of ten minutes was added on top of this average time. Since one-third of the participants finished the survey in under ten minutes, thirty-one minutes appears to be ample time to focus on each question and significantly more time likely would have exceeded a window of consciousness for the manipulation to work. This upper limit resulted in the exclusion of four participants, as they took longer than this cap to complete the survey.

Moreover, I tested for influential outliers using the Mahalanobis distance and an according chi-square distribution, which did not produce any significant ones (Kline, 2011).

Lastly, one individual inserted an age of nine, which, considering the sample overall and the rather targeted distribution of the survey, seems unlikely. While there are a few options such as excluding this data point, I chose to keep it but slightly deviate the continuous variable age. First, the data sample was overall small and second, the entries of this individual suggested that indeed he or she placed sufficient time on answering the questions diligently by deviating sufficiently in the replies. To circumvent manipulating the entry, I categorized age into three groups, resulting in this data point being placed in the youngest of the three groups.

As this survey was held in English and most subjects were likely to not have had English as a first language, a variable controlling for whether there had been comprehension issues was included in the survey. This variable characterizing trouble in understanding the questions was equally distributed among both samples and, thus, no further data exclusion was undertaken (mean difference = 0.16, $p > 0.1$; after excluding data points). All of these steps of exclusion resulted in a new sample size of forty-eight data points, of which twenty-one had perceived a construal misfit and twenty-seven had perceived a construal fit.

Post screening procedure. Subsequent to this initial data screening, an exploratory factor analysis was performed to specify the item composition for each factor. In accordance with most empirical analyses, I followed Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach for this process. For each case, a principal component analysis was conducted to extract the factor. Additionally, the oblimin rotation method with Kaiser Normalization was employed when necessary. Once adequate loadings and, hence, adequate compositions were found, the items were averaged for each case resulting in the final variable. Furthermore, the Harman's one factor test was used to assess common method bias, but failed to obtain significant abnormality (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Subsequent to this, as can be observed in Table 1, all variables were compared between the subjects that perceived a construal fit and those that perceived a construal misfit using an independent sample t-test. As no variable was found to be significantly unequally distributed, none of the control variables were further included in the analyses with the exception of two demographic variables. I then performed a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the reliability and validity as well as model fit. After mostly confirming the utilized scales, I conducted hierarchical linear regressions on different models. Because the results were unsatisfactory, a post-hoc analysis was also conducted. A detailed description of the exploratory as well as confirmatory factor analysis can be found in section 3.4 comprised of measurement validation. The results of the data and the post-hoc analysis are described and discussed in chapters four and five.

Table 1. Independent sample *t*-test.

Notes: V^1 = equal variance assumed; V^2 = equal variance not assumed.

| Variable | Variance | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | Significance (2-tailed) | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
|---------------------------------|----------|---|--------------|-------------------------|---|---------|
| | | <i>F</i> | Significance | | Lower | Upper |
| Duration [seconds] | V^1 | 0.015 | 0.903 | 0.613 | -209.849 | 112.113 |
| Gender | V^1 | 0.047 | 0.829 | 0.915 | -0.232 | 0.263 |
| Age | V^1 | 1.385 | 0.245 | 0.497 | -0.215 | 0.511 |
| Degree | V^2 | 4.187 | 0.046 | 0.322 | -0.079 | 0.312 |
| English as first language | V^1 | 0.266 | 0.609 | 0.798 | -0.159 | 0.117 |
| Trouble understanding questions | V^2 | 10.203 | 0.003 | 0.136 | -0.018 | 0.346 |
| Major business related | V^1 | 0.266 | 0.609 | 0.798 | -0.159 | 0.117 |
| Home country Finland | V^1 | 2.372 | 0.130 | 0.192 | -0.432 | 0.051 |
| Proactive personality | V^1 | 3.612 | 0.064 | 0.348 | -0.658 | 0.183 |
| Prior experience | V^1 | 0.084 | 0.773 | 0.341 | -0.182 | 0.049 |
| Self-efficacy | V^1 | 1.732 | 0.195 | 0.754 | -0.686 | 0.469 |
| Need for achievement | V^1 | 1.717 | 0.197 | 0.858 | -0.354 | 0.439 |
| Risk propensity | V^1 | 0.014 | 0.906 | 0.476 | -0.847 | 0.339 |

3.3 Measures

Subsequent to describing how the sample was constructed and what process the methodology was underlying, this section describes how each variable was measured. All of these measures were derived from established scales in management literature. With the exception of bipolar ones, all statement-style items were measured using a seven-point Likert scale with one representing completely disagree and seven representing completely agree. This sometimes deviated from the original version of the scale but was nevertheless applied to all scales for reasons of consistency. For a full list of the dependent, mediator and moderator variables' scales and respective items used in the analyses, refer to Appendix

2. To ensure that each item of each scale was equally paid attention to, I randomized the order of items within the respective scale. Therefore, the order of scales remained constant while the order of items within each one deviated randomly for each individual.

Perceived construal fit. As explained in section 3.1, perceived construal fit was manipulated using vignettes.

Affective commitment. While commitment in general is comprised of three constructs, only the first of these three was reasonable to analyze in this specific context, namely affective commitment. I employed the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) that is comprised of six items, two of which are in turn based on Buchanan's (1974) empirical study. Contrary to other scales such as employee entrepreneurial intention or behavior, I adopted the original version including four reverse-coded items.

Regulatory focus. Regulatory focus encompassing promotion and prevention focus was evaluated using Fellner, Holler, Kirchler and Schabmann's Regulatory Focus Scale (2007). It builds on Higgin's (1997; 1998) work on regulatory focus theory. The ten self-assessment items have a focus on present attitudes and characterize growth as well as security orientation. Each of the two subsidiary concepts promotion as well as prevention focus is based on two underlying factors. While the former is comprised of autonomy and openness to new things, the latter is comprised of orientation to expectation of others and sense of obligation (Fellner et al., 2007). While the loadings from the exploratory factor analysis were promising to be congruent with underlying theory, the items and the corresponding second order constructs failed to produce meaningful results in the confirmatory factor analysis. Thus, I chose to only use that factor made up of items with the highest loadings. For the case of promotion focus this was openness to new things and for the case of prevention focus it was orientation to the expectation of others.

Entrepreneurial intention. Entrepreneurial intention was measured using a scale developed by Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2013). In their original design, the three items aim to elicit employee's likeliness to manage a newly setup division to either introduce a new product to an existing market or an existing one to a new market. They were adapted to serve this study's purpose by amending the wording to the hypothetical company described in the scenario. While there are other scales to measure this type of intention such as the commonly used one by Liñán and Chen (2009), the scale by Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2013) specifically targets individuals inside an organization and consequently

frames the questions' content to elicit entrepreneurial intentions within the realm of organization rather than entrepreneurship in general.

Entrepreneurial behavior. While there are multiple options for scales eliciting the variable entrepreneurial behavior, each with upsides and downsides, this study employed one by de Jong et al. (2015). By measuring concepts of innovation, proactivity and risk-taking, this scale captures three essential elements of entrepreneurial behavior. While technically these three properties fail to reflect new venture creation or strategic renewal directly, given the depth of the topic it is a pragmatic compromise between measurability and complexity (Gawke, Gorgievski, & Bakker, 2017). The scale's first part innovation relies on three questions taken from Scott and Bruce's scale (1994) to capture employee's innovative behavior. The second element proactivity is captured with two items from Parker and Collins' (2010) scale of proactive strategic behavior. De Jong et al. (2015) added a supplementary item to this proactivity dimension capturing exerted effort to pursue new business opportunities. Lastly, to capture risk propensity in entrepreneurial behavior the scale utilizes two items from Zhao, Seibert and Hills' (2005 as cited by de Jong et al., 2015) study. Additionally, the authors used an item to explicitly capture the willingness to actively engage oneself. To adapt this scale comprised of nine items in total to this study's purpose, it was slightly rephrased by replacing peers evaluating colleague's entrepreneurial behavior with the subjects themselves rating the likelihood of exhibiting such behavior.

Control variables. In this section, I want to point out character traits that possibly decrease the generalizability of this empirical study that hence should be controlled for. First, there is risk propensity, which can be defined as "a personality trait involving the willingness to pursue decisions or courses of action involving uncertainty regarding success or failure outcomes" (Jackson, 1994 as cited by Zhao, Seibert, & Lumpkin, 2010, p. 388). Due to the uncertainty of outcomes in entrepreneurship in general, but also specifically with regard to employee entrepreneurial behavior, risk propensity could positively influence entrepreneurial intention or behavior. For instance, a meta-analysis by Brandstätter (2011) confirmed that it is highly correlated with said intention. On the other hand, another meta-analysis by Rauch and Frese (2007) stated that there is ambiguity of whether risk propensity is influential on entrepreneurial behavior. Given the uncertainty, it seemed reasonable to include risk propensity as a control variable. It was measured with Dohmen

et al.'s (2011) scale of risk assessment, which itself relies on the questionnaire of the German Socio-Economic Panel (2004). While originally the questions try to elicit risk preferences regarding multiple topics, I chose to merely utilize a single rather global question, which Dohmen et al. (2011) showed to have a relatively high predictability for risk-taking behavior in different contexts.

Second, proactive personality was included as a control variable to control for individuals that have a tendency to identify opportunities and act on them. These types of subjects with a disposition toward proactive behavior can be defined as those with the "relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 103). Early research by Crant (1996) demonstrated that a proactive personality shows a high probability of predicting entrepreneurial intention. Additionally, proactive personality was shown to be almost identical to personal initiative, which by definition predicts employee entrepreneurial intention due to its inherent pattern associated with self-driven inclination to achieve a goal (Frese & Fay, 2001). Proactive personality was measured based on a scale developed by Seibert, Crant and Kraimer (1999), which is a ten-item questionnaire and represents a shortened version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) 17-item scale.

Third, prior experience in entrepreneurship can be argued to have an effect on entrepreneurial intention or behavior. These individuals are commonly referred to as habitual entrepreneurs (Birley & Westhead, 1993), but in this context a rather broad conception was used by referring to some prior contact with entrepreneurship. Individuals with such experience are potentially less uncertain about how the experience of such a path compares to a conventional career development. Consequently, this uncertainty may mitigate risk aversion as more experience generally lowers uncertainty. Depending of the outcome of such prior experience, it may lead these individuals to be more open to or even have positive connotations with entrepreneurial opportunities. In an empirical study by Peterman and Kennedy (2003), positive prior experience in entrepreneurship had a significant positive correlation with perceived desirability and thus could predict future aspirations or intentions in the field of entrepreneurship. Prior experience in entrepreneurship was measured using a four-item scale based on Krueger's (1993) study about the validity of entrepreneurial experience as a predicting variable on entrepreneurial intention.

Moreover, self-efficacy was included to control for individuals' assertiveness and confidence in themselves. It can be defined as "people's beliefs in their capability to exercise control over their own functioning and over environmental events" (Bandura, 1997 as cited by Craighead & Nemeroff, 2000, p. 1474). If employees experience a lack of such self-efficacy, their entrepreneurial intentions or behavior may be significantly lower than of those individuals who have an abundance of this trait. Indeed, research by Cassar and Friedman (2009) found that in the domain of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, one's perception of elevated abilities in this field is associated with increased engagement in becoming an entrepreneur. Additionally, a study by Townsend, Busenitz and Arthurs (2010) looked at different predicting factors for underlying reasons of individuals' choice to become an entrepreneur and found that ability expectancy, i.e. self-efficacy, is a critical driver. Self-efficacy was estimated using four questions from Zhao et al.'s (2005 as cited by de Jong et al., 2015) study.

Additionally, I included need for achievement as a control variable. An individual scoring high in this trait can be referred to as possessing high standards and yearning to accomplish difficult tasks (Jackson, 1974). Seeking challenges and accepting ownership is an essential precondition for entrepreneurial behavior (Rauch & Frese, 2007). Early research by McClelland (1965) identified in a longitudinal study that individuals with a high need for achievement are more likely to pursue entrepreneurship than individuals who score low in this character trait. Rauch and Frese's (2007) meta-analysis found this trait to be highly associated with individuals pursuing business creation. Need for achievement was measured using the Unified Motive Scale developed by Schönbrodt and Gerstenberg (2012) that mostly builds upon the Personal Values Questionnaire developed by McClelland (1987). It has a high internal validity compared to other types of scales with regard to this matter and has the advantage of having three different versions. For this empirical study the shortest version with three items was employed.

Lastly, I included multiple demographic variables such as education, gender and age. Similar to prior experience, education in entrepreneurship may enable individuals to better understand entrepreneurship and comprehend its risk factors as well as outcome possibilities. One study indeed showed that entrepreneurship educational programs can lead to increased entrepreneurial intentions (Fayolle, Gailly, & Lassas-Clerc, 2006). Gender is a common factor controlled for in empirical studies, as entrepreneurial self-efficacy

as well as entrepreneurial intention may differ quite largely between men and women (Wilson, Kickul, & Marlino, 2007). Age can have an effect on entrepreneurial intention or behavior as over a lifespan cost of time and returns from ventures may differ. This was shown to result in a U-shape relationship (Levesque & Minniti, 2006).

3.4 Measurement validation

Common method bias. This study employed several means to ensure the model and its measures are unidimensional, reliable and valid. As a first step, data screening and according exclusion of data points were employed as described. In addition to this preliminary step, it is essential to determine that the gathered data is valid by not suffering of the single methodology employed to collect data. Common method bias is a realistic issue that may have occurred to the present type of survey data (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This study followed one of the suggested approaches by literature to test the magnitude of common method bias by applying the Harman's single-factor test. After conducting a principal component analysis with all relevant items, the result showed multiple factors with eigenvalues greater than one and the highest variance accounted for by any single factor of 21.19%. Given that there was more than one factor and that not all of the major variance was accounted for by one factor, this indicated that the data was not subject to common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Exploratory factor analysis. Subsequent to this, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. While all of the scales were based on literature and thus would not require such an analysis per se, this step ensured that the scales were also applicable for this empirical study. This present study relied on principal components extraction and direct oblimin rotation. Albeit there is a lack of an unambiguous figure that empirical research generally relies upon, this study chose to rely on a conservative threshold of 0.5 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Additionally, all of these variables passed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test by exceeding a minimum threshold of 0.5 (Kaiser, 1974) and the Bartlett's test by significantly deviating ($p < 0.05$) from an identity matrix (Bartlett, 1951). Both, the extraction and the rotation, were conducted for all variables when required, but to remain concise only the relevant variables are reported. The complete list of all relevant variables and the results can be observed in Appendix 2.

As described earlier, affective commitment's original scale consists of six items (Allen & Meyer, 1990). An exploratory factor analysis revealed that indeed all six items

sufficiently loaded onto one factor with corresponding loadings of above the threshold of 0.5.

For the case of employee entrepreneurial behavior, the analysis showed that six items of the original nine items loaded onto one factor. Contrary to this, employee entrepreneurial intention's scale remained with a composition of all three items with factor loadings surpassing the threshold.

By separating regulatory focus into the two subsidiary concepts promotion and prevention focus, Fellner et al. (2007) suggested two underlying factors for each of these two variables. The exploratory factor analysis for the latter concept revealed that equivalent to theory two items loaded onto orientation to expectations of others, while contrary to theory only two items loaded onto sense of obligation. For the case of promotion focus, equivalent to the suggested scales from theory three items loaded onto the component openness to new things, but only one item loaded onto autonomy. The remaining item had a negative loading onto openness to new things. As reverse-coding would not have been meaningful in this case, I chose to manually exclude it. Because building second order constructs in a confirmatory factor analysis did not produce any meaningful results, I opted to merely use those concepts with the highest factor loadings. For prevention focus, these were the items loading onto orientation to the expectation of others, whereas for promotion focus, these were the items of openness to new things. The approach of utilizing fewer items with higher loadings is consistent with other empirical research, as especially in the cases of small sample sizes this is a recognized way to obtain meaningful results (Deutscher, Zapkau, Schwens, Baum, & Kabst, 2016). Additionally, this is particularly relevant for moderation effects, because these are particularly sensitive to internal consistencies. When these are low, they tend to underestimate the interaction effect (Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010). All of the mentioned factor loadings for regulatory focus were above 0.7.

While I conducted the exploratory factor analyses for all control variables, the results are not reported and further discussed. For all variables, averages were drawn of the relevant items. As the independent t-test showed that no character traits or other possible confounding variables were unequally distributed among the samples, these, consequently, were excluded from further analyses with the exception of age and gender.

Confirmatory factor analysis. In the next step, this study assessed the convergent and discriminant validity for two models. The first model displayed in Appendix 3 and 4 with employee entrepreneurial intention as a dependent variable is comprised of the independent variable perceived construal fit, the mediator affective commitment as well as the moderator variables promotion and prevention focus. The second model displayed in Appendix 5 and 6 is similar to this, the only difference being the dependent variable employee entrepreneurial behavior instead of intention. In an initial analysis, regulatory focus was used as a second order construct. Because this failed to produce meaningful results and as discussed, the small sample sizes could be an obstacle, I chose to only utilize one respective subcomponent with the highest factor loading. For both models, an additional constraint was placed on prevention focus to solve a Heywood case. While this was not consistent with theory, it was also not inconsistent (McDonald, 2014). The confirmatory factor analyses provided support for convergent validity of the measurement scales as all standardized factor loadings were significant ($p < 0.05$) and above the threshold of 0.4 (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986).

In the first model, discriminant validity was not achieved. All criteria developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) with the exception of average variance extracted were supported. The composite reliability measures exceeded the suggested threshold of 0.6 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). According to the author's criteria, discriminant validity is achieved by an average variance extracted of more than 0.5 for each construct as well as this variance being higher than the squared correlation between the constructs. While these criteria were achieved for both promotion and prevention focus with values of 0.61 and 0.56, respectively, employee entrepreneurial intention and affective commitment displayed lower than desired variance with 0.44 and 0.45, respectively. Nevertheless, for all variables the average variance extracted was higher than the maximum shared variance. These results, thus, established that composite reliability was achieved while discriminant validity was not.

As expected, in Model 2 the results were similar. Composite reliability was also achieved for this model with all values exceeding the threshold of 0.6. Similar to above, employee entrepreneurial behavior and affective commitment failed to achieve discriminant validity with values of 0.48 and 0.44, respectively. Promotion and prevention focus on the other hand displayed an average variance extracted of 0.61 and 0.57, respectively.

Hence, while composite reliability was achieved in both models, discriminant validity was slightly lower than the suggested thresholds.

Model validity. In the next step I utilized AMOS to evaluate model fit indicators. For the first model, chi-squared (χ^2) was 78.84 and its quotient with the divisor of 72 degrees of freedom was equal to 1.10, which was below the common threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 2011). The root mean square error of approximation (*RMSEA*) was below the threshold of 0.06 with a value of 0.05 (Hu & Bentler, 1999 as cited by Deutscher et al., 2016). Additionally, the incremental fit index (*IFI*) and the comparative fit index (*CFI*) exceeded the threshold of 0.9 with values of 0.97 and 0.96, respectively (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The Tucker-Lewis index (*TLI*) also exceeded the threshold of 0.9 with 0.95 (Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar, & Dillon, 2005). Lastly, the value of the Akaike information criterion (*AIC*) was 144.84. In consequence, the model fit analysis yielded satisfactory results for the first model. For the second one, χ^2 was 139.94 and divided by 114 degrees of freedom was also below the threshold of 3.0 with a value of 1.23 (Kline, 2011). *IFI* and *CFI* exceeded the threshold of 0.9 with a value of 0.92 and 0.91, respectively (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The *RMSEA* and *TLI* were marginally not sufficient with values of 0.07 and 0.89, respectively (Hu & Bentler, 1999 as cited by Deutscher et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2005). Lastly, the *AIC* was 217.94 for the second model. As the sample size with forty-eight was quite small, this study followed Hu and Bentler's (1999 as cited by Deutscher et al., 2016) suggestion to rely on *IFI* and *CFI* values to assess model fit, which resulted in both cases in indicating sufficient model fit.

3.5 Method of analysis

For realizing and distributing the survey, I employed the research software 'Qualtrics'. While there are multiple offerings for conducting surveys, this provided the best option for operability. For instance, conducting randomization of the individuals into the different manipulations as well as of the order of items within each scale proved to be the most convenient for this empirical study. For computing and analyzing the results, I used the software SPSS including AMOS. While this software does not provide the best option in the contemporary environment of statistical software, the PROCESS tool developed by Hayes (2017) adds a suitable feature to it by generating results for models with moderated mediation and was, thus, ideal for this empirical study. The results of the analyses are described and analyzed in the following chapter.

4 RESULTS

While the previous chapter mainly describes the reasoning behind the method and process of collecting data, this chapter explicitly showcases the results. Subsequent to the exploratory factor analysis, all items for each factor were summed up and divided by the number of items to reflect an average. As described earlier, a data screening revealed issues with thirteen individuals, who were excluded from the following reporting. This resulted in a sample size of forty-eight individuals.

4.1 Preliminary data analysis

Descriptive statistics. The mean subject was part of the 1.58 age group. In more relatable terms, the median of the sample was twenty-four years. The participants' age ranged from a minimum of nine, which I discuss in the previous chapter, to a maximum of forty-four. The gender of the participants was balanced with slightly more female ones with a percentage of fifty-six. While more than three out of four participants pursued a master's degree at the time of the survey, none pursued doctoral studies. Of all participants, ninety-two percent answered that they are studying a business-related topic. Additionally, with a share of more than fifty percent the vast majority was born in Finland. Almost all subjects stated that they have some type of prior experience with entrepreneurship with the average participant having two of four possible connection points. Interestingly, all of the character traits that were elicited in this study point had an average score above neutral, i.e. more than four out of seven. This was especially pronounced for need for achievement with an average score of 6.06. The same can be said for promotion focus and prevention focus, both of which displayed an average score of more than five out of seven. Lastly, more than four out of five subjects reported trouble in understanding the questions. A full list of descriptive characteristics of measures is included in the intercorrelation table in Appendix 7. As explained, it should be noted that the values of the variables were taken subsequent to excluding certain data points and averaging the variables after the explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis.

Independent sample t-test and bivariate correlations. The independent sample t-test revealed that all variables were equally distributed among the two samples. In the test, homogeneity of variance was verified using Levene's test with a threshold of 0.05 (Levene, 1960). The closest variable to unequal distribution was trouble in understanding with a mean difference of 0.14 ($p > 0.1$). The result of the t-test can be observed in Table

1. Additional to the independent t-test, the intercorrelations were analyzed. There are only a few variables with significant bivariate correlations, which demonstrated fairly unrelated variables. None of the correlations were particularly noteworthy with one exception. Proactive personality was significantly correlated to promotion focus ($r = 0.70, p < 0.01$). This is somewhat reasonable as those people focused on gains could also be likely to proactively pursue these gains. All of the remaining bivariate correlations were well below a conventional threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006). Because proactive personality was equally distributed among the two samples and the other variables were below the mentioned threshold, multicollinearity was unlikely (Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, 1996). The complete intercorrelation matrix is displayed in Appendix 7.

4.2 Procedure and first step of analysis

Procedure of analysis. Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) steps, I performed multiple regressions. First, I ran a simple hierarchical regression with the independent variable perceived construal fit and the dependent variables employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior. Second, I ran a hierarchical regression analysis with the same independent variable but with the mediator affective commitment as a dependent variable. Third, I regressed perceived construal fit in conjunction with affective commitment on employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior, respectively. This is reported in the last section of this paragraph. In the second and third regression I also included regulatory focus as a moderator.

First step of the mediation. Regressing perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial intention offered the following results. While the constant had a positive and significant coefficient ($\beta = 4.87, p < 0.001$), perceived construal fit was not statistically significant from zero in predicting employee entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.39, p > 0.1$). Accordingly, R^2 was relatively low and the F -statistic was not statistically significant ($R^2 = 0.03$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.01$; $F = 1.53, p > 0.1$). These results were similar with employee entrepreneurial behavior as a dependent variable. The constant was positive and significant ($\beta = 4.99, p < 0.001$). Perceived construal fit was not statistically significant from zero in predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior ($\beta = -0.12, p > 0.1$). The R^2 and F -statistic were comparatively low ($R^2 = 0.00$; adjusted $R^2 = -0.02$; $F = 0.21, p > 0.1$).

4.3 Second step of the mediation

Results with affective commitment as a dependent variable. In this section, I introduce the results for the hierarchical regression analyses with affective commitment as a dependent variable. These results can be observed in Table 2. Since there was no variable unequally distributed among the two samples of the experiment, I only included the relevant variables in this first stage of analysis. In both parts of the analysis, I used hierarchical regression models with an initial model including the independent variable, a secondary model including the direct effects of regulatory focus and a third model including the interaction.

Table 2. Ordinary least squares regression predicting affective commitment.

Notes: Affective commitment is the dependent variable. Coefficients are unstandardized. Significance levels: $^{\dagger}p < 0.10$, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.

| Variables | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
|---|--------------------|---------|--------------------|
| <i>Control variables</i> | | | |
| Constant | 3.635*** | 2.843** | 2.687 [†] |
| <i>Direct effects</i> | | | |
| Perceived construal fit | 0.556 [†] | 0.508 | 0.855 |
| Promotion focus | | 0.144 | 0.345 |
| Prevention focus | | 0.018 | -0.126 |
| <i>Interaction</i> | | | |
| Perceived construal fit x Promotion focus | | | -0.314 |
| Perceived construal fit x Prevention focus | | | 0.219 |
| R^2 | 0.067 | 0.089 | 0.130 |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0.046 | 0.027 | 0.026 |
| ΔR^2 | | 0.022 | 0.041 |
| F | 3.276 [†] | 1.425 | 1.253 |

In the initial model, hence, only perceived construal fit was regressed on affective commitment. As expected, this effect was positive with statistical significance, albeit merely marginally so ($\beta = 0.56$; $p = 0.08$).

In Model 2, the direct effects of promotion and prevention focus were included in the regression. The effect of perceived construal fit remained positive but lost its marginal statistical significance ($\beta = 0.51$; $p > 0.1$). Both promotion as well as prevention focus had a minor direct positive effect on affective commitment with no statistical significance.

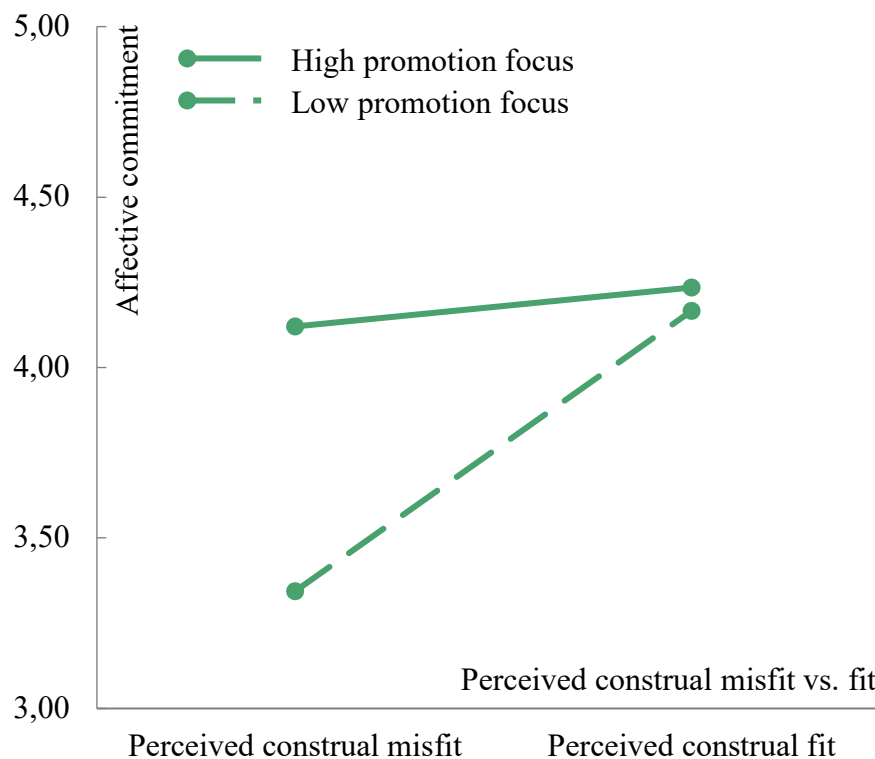
Interestingly, for Model 1 the F -test had a marginal statistical significance, whereas for Model 2 this was no longer the case ($F = 3.28, p = 0.08$ and $F = 1.43, p > 0.1$, respectively). Furthermore, with a respective R^2 of 0.07 and 0.09, the change in R^2 was not significant from Model 1 to Model 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.02; p > 0.1$).

In Model 3, the interaction effects of perceived construal fit and promotion focus as well as perceived construal fit and prevention focus were added. While in Model 1, perceived construal fit had a marginally significant positive effect, in Model 3 similar to Model 2, perceived construal fit's effect on affective commitment remained positive but was insignificant ($\beta = 0.86; p > 0.1$). As hypothesized, the interaction of perceived construal fit and promotion focus had a negative effect on the dependent variable, whereas its interaction with prevention focus had a positive effect. However, both of these effects were not significant ($\beta = -0.31$ and 0.22 , each $p > 0.1$; respectively). The R^2 increased as expected since in general it does so when additional variables are added ($R^2 = 0.13$). Nevertheless, the change in R^2 remained insignificant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.04, p > 0.1$). Similar to Model 2, the F -statistic for Model 3 was insignificant ($F = 1.25, p > 0.1$). In all of the three models, the adjusted R^2 remained fairly low (0.05, 0.03 and 0.03, respectively).

Thus, Hypothesis 1 found support on a marginal significance level. Hypotheses 2a and 2b were not found to have a significant effect on affective commitment in the initial regression. Nevertheless, as literature suggests, interaction effects can be interpreted by looking at the sign, extent or significance levels but may additionally be plotted to further generate insights (Jaccard & Turrissi, 2003). As is common in simultaneous two-way interactions, one moderator was held constant at its mean with the other one displayed in low and high state, i.e. one standard deviation below and above the mean (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991).

Figure 2. Plot of the interaction of perceived construal fit and +/- one standard deviation of promotion focus.

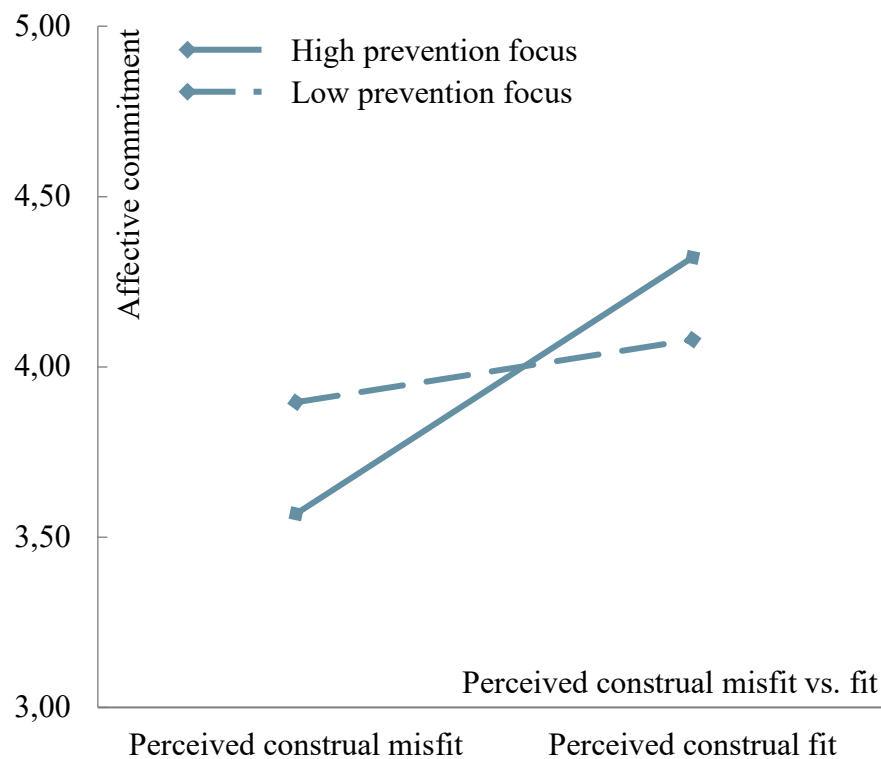
Notes: High = one standard deviation above the mean; Low = one standard deviation below the mean.



In Figure 2, the interaction of perceived construal misfit as well as fit and promotion focus can be observed, whereas the interaction with prevention focus may be observed in Figure 3. As suggested by the direct effect in Model 1, perceived construal fit seemed to have a positive impact on affective commitment independent of the level of the moderator. In each plot, all slopes irrespective of the level of the moderator gave the impression to be positive and perceived construal fit seemed to predict a higher level of affective commitment than a misfit does. Notwithstanding this illustration, it should be noted that this effect only found marginal statistical significance. As shown in Figure 2, the slope of the high level of promotion focus seemed to be lower than the slope of the low level of the moderator, which offered an illustration of the proposed mechanism, yet did not change the statistical insignificance. Additionally, promotion-focused individuals appeared to have a higher affective commitment in a perceived construal misfit.

Figure 3. Plot of the interaction of perceived construal fit and +/- one standard deviation of prevention focus.

Notes: High = one standard deviation above the mean; Low = one standard deviation below the mean.



As shown in Figure 3, those high in prevention focus appeared to have a higher state of affective commitment when perceiving a construal misfit as compared to those low in prevention focus. Additionally, the slope was more positive when prevention focus is high, i.e. the difference between a perceived misfit and fit is more pronounced for those in a high prevention focus.

Despite insignificant interaction terms in the initial regression, it could be interesting to probe the significance of all slopes at different values. Thus, a simple slope test was conducted for one standard deviation below and above the mean (Aiken et al., 1991). As indicated by the results of the regression, for both promotion as well as prevention focus the slopes at low and high values were not statistically significantly different from zero ($p > 0.1$ for all cases). Hence, while the two graphs differed quite considerably from a visual perspective, as shown in the statistical insignificance in the regression and the

simple slope test, these were mere indications. Hypotheses 2a und 2b, hence, did not find support.

4.4 Third step of the mediation

Results of the mediation with employee entrepreneurial intention as a dependent variable. In the next paragraph, I elaborate on the results with employee entrepreneurial intention as a dependent variable, which the reader can also observe in Table 3. The models were structured in a similar way with manipulation in the form of a perceived construal fit and affective commitment as independent variables in the first model and more variables added subsequently. Additionally, the two according to literature conventional control variables gender and age group were introduced (Wilson et al., 2007; Levesque & Minniti, 2006).

Table 3. Second part of analysis including employee entrepreneurial intention.

Notes: PCF = perceived construal fit; AC = affective commitment; pro = promotion focus; pre = prevention focus. Significance levels: $^{\dagger}p < 0.10$, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.

| Variables | Model 4 | Model 5 | Model 6 |
|--|--------------------|--------------------|---------|
| <i>Control variables</i> | | | |
| Constant | 4.215*** | 3.975*** | 5.167** |
| Age | 0.210 | 0.117 | 0.079 |
| Gender (Female = 1) | -0.431 | -0.329 | -0.346 |
| <i>Direct effects</i> | | | |
| Perceived construal fit | 0.260 | 0.130 | -2.080 |
| Affective commitment | 0.271 † | 0.245 † | 0.245 |
| Promotion focus | | 0.228 | 0.120 |
| Prevention focus | | -0.135 | -0.239 |
| <i>Interaction</i> | | | |
| Perceived construal fit x Promotion focus | | | 0.218 |
| Perceived construal fit x Prevention focus | | | 0.204 |
| R^2 | 0.162 | 0.241 | 0.266 |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0.084 | 0.130 | 0.116 |
| ΔR^2 | | 0.079 | 0.025 |
| F | 2.074 | 2.171 † | 1.770 |

In Model 4, perceived construal fit had a positive direct effect on employee entrepreneurial intention but failed to do so on a significant level ($\beta = 0.26$, $p > 0.1$). On the

other hand, affective commitment had a marginally significant positive impact on employee entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.27, p = 0.07$). This lent initial support for the suggested mediation. However, the confidence interval for the indirect effect of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial intention included zero, yet only slightly so (lower limit confidence interval = -0.02, upper limit confidence interval = 0.34; bootstrap with confidence 90%). As in some previous models, the F -statistic for this specific model was insignificant, but notwithstanding had a comparatively high R^2 and adjusted R^2 ($F = 2.07, p > 0.1$; $R^2 = 0.16$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.08$). Of the control variables, no variable was statistically different from zero in predicting employee entrepreneurial intention. While the marginal significance indicated that a mediation of affective commitment between perceived construal fit and employee entrepreneurial intention may take place, the confidence intervals of the indirect effect excluded zero (lower limit confidence interval = -0.02, upper limit confidence interval = 0.33; bootstrap with confidence 90%). Hence, this failed to lend statistical support for Hypothesis 3a.

In Model 5, the direct effects of promotion and prevention focus as independent variables were included. While promotion focus had a positive impact and prevention focus had a negative direct impact, neither of these effects was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.23, p > 0.1$ and $\beta = -0.14, p > 0.1$, respectively). Perceived construal fit remained positive but insignificant and affective commitment also remained positive and marginally significant in predicting employee entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.13, p > 0.1$ and $\beta = 0.25, p = 0.10$, respectively). Contrary to Model 4, the F -statistic was marginally significant and the R^2 as well as adjusted R^2 repeatedly displayed a comparatively high value ($F = 2.17, p = 0.07$; $R^2 = 0.24$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.13$). However, the change of R^2 was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = 0.08, p > 0.1$). All of the control variables were not significant in predicting the dependent variable.

Lastly, Model 6 included the interaction of perceived construal fit and promotion focus as well as perceived construal fit and prevention focus. Affective commitment's effect on the dependent variable was still positive in this model, albeit no longer with marginal significance ($\beta = 0.25, p > 0.1$). Both regulatory focus variables' direct effect on the dependent variable remained similar in their impact yet did not have statistical significance ($\beta = 0.12, p > 0.1$ and $\beta = -0.24, p > 0.1$, respectively). Promotion and pre-

vention focus were also not significantly different from zero when interacting with perceived construal fit in predicting employee entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.22$, $p > 0.1$ and $\beta = 0.20$, $p > 0.1$, respectively). Both control variables did not have a statistically significant impact on the dependent variable.

In addition to the immediate interaction term resulting from the regression, for Hypotheses 4a and 4c it is useful to look at the indices of partial moderated mediation and the conditional indirect effects. The latter results are listed in Table 4 and 5. A preliminary analysis of each index of partial moderated mediation showed that neither one of regulatory focus excluded zero and thus no conditional indirect effect for different values of either promotion or prevention focus when holding the other moderator constant could be deemed different (Hayes, 2018). Despite this evidence, a closer look at the results may reveal insights for given levels of the interactions.

Table 4. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial intention moderated by prevention focus.

Notes: Promotion focus held constant at mean (5.021). Low = one standard deviation below the mean; high = one standard deviation above the mean; *BootSE* = bootstrap standard error; *BootLLCI* = bootstrap 90% lower limit confidence interval; *BootULCI* = bootstrap 90% upper limit confidence interval.

| Prevention focus | | Effect | BootSE | BootLLCI | BootULCI |
|------------------|---------|--------|--------|----------|----------|
| Low | (4.164) | 0.045 | 0.139 | -0.152 | 0.297 |
| Mean | (5.448) | 0.115 | 0.112 | -0.033 | 0.317 |
| High | (6.750) | 0.184 | 0.166 | -0.033 | 0.472 |

Table 5. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial intention moderated by promotion focus.

Notes: Prevention focus held constant at mean (5.448). Low = one standard deviation below the mean; high = one standard deviation above the mean; *BootSE* = bootstrap standard error; *BootLLCI* = bootstrap 90% lower limit confidence interval; *BootULCI* = bootstrap 90% upper limit confidence interval.

| Promotion focus | | Effect | BootSE | BootLLCI | BootULCI |
|-----------------|---------|--------|--------|----------|----------|
| Low | (3.984) | 0.201 | 0.167 | -0.038 | 0.495 |
| Mean | (5.021) | 0.115 | 0.112 | -0.033 | 0.317 |
| High | (6.147) | 0.028 | 0.142 | -0.170 | 0.281 |

To produce the displayed conditional indirect effects, one moderator was kept constant at its arithmetic mean while the second moderator was varied with one standard deviation. Keeping promotion focus constant and deviating prevention focus in this way showed that the confidence intervals did not exclude zero, i.e. that this interaction effect does not have a statistically significant impact in moderating the given mediation. Doing the same exercise for prevention focus showed similar results. One should note that, as hypothesized, the effect did seem to increase from 0.05 at low to 0.18 at high prevention focus. Interestingly, the estimated indirect effect also decreased from 0.20 at low to 0.03 at high levels of promotion focus. Nevertheless, because none of the confidence intervals excluded zero, Hypothesis 4a and 4c did not find support. An additional indication for this was the fact that the F-statistic lost its marginal statistical significance from Model 5 to Model 6 and displayed a relatively low change in R^2 ($F = 1.77, p > 0.1; \Delta R^2 = 0.03, p > 0.1$).

Results of the mediation with employee entrepreneurial behavior as a dependent variable. Subsequent to elaborating on the results with employee entrepreneurial intention as a dependent variable, I describe those with employee entrepreneurial behavior as a dependent variable in the next paragraph. As the reader can observe in Table 6, the structure of the models was the same with the dependent variable being the only exception. Hence, I focus on the most important differences.

Table 6. Moderated mediation results predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior.

Notes: Employee entrepreneurial intention is the dependent variable. Coefficients are unstandardized. Significance levels: $^{\dagger}p < 0.10$, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.

| Variables | Model 7 | Model 8 | Model 9 |
|---|----------|--------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Control variables</i> | | | |
| Constant | 4.016*** | 3.297*** | 1.855 |
| Age | 0.069 | -0.030 | 0.011 |
| Gender (Female = 1) | -0.063 | -0.009 | 0.011 |
| <i>Direct effects</i> | | | |
| Perceived construal fit | -0.253 | -0.355 | 2.349 |
| Affective commitment | 0.264* | 0.229 † | 0.226 † |
| Promotion focus | | 0.245* | 0.393* |
| Prevention focus | | -0.045 | 0.070 |
| <i>Interaction</i> | | | |
| Perceived construal fit x Promotion focus | | | -0.289 |
| Perceived construal fit x Prevention focus | | | -0.229 |
| R^2 | 0.113 | 0.209 | 0.268 |
| Adjusted R^2 | 0.030 | 0.094 | 0.118 |
| ΔR^2 | | 0.096 † | 0.059 |
| F | 1.368 | 1.810 | 1.784 |

In Model 7, the effect of affective commitment as an independent variable was robustly significantly different from zero in predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior as compared to marginally as before ($\beta = 0.26$, $p < 0.05$). Furthermore, the confidence intervals of the indirect effect excluded zero albeit barely so (lower limit confidence interval = 0.01, upper limit confidence interval = 0.33; bootstrap with confidence 90%). Therefore, this lent marginal statistical support for Hypothesis 3b.

Model 8 was the only model that showed a marginally significant change in R^2 , despite an insignificant F-statistic as compared to Model 5 previously ($\Delta R^2 = 0.10$, $p = 0.09$; $F = 1.81$, $p > 0.1$). This significant raise was most likely caused by promotion focus having a significant direct positive effect on employee entrepreneurial behavior ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$).

In Model 9, the predicting effect of promotion focus remained with the same level of significance and a higher coefficient ($\beta = 0.39$, $p < 0.05$). Affective commitment had a statistically significant direct positive effect on employee entrepreneurial behavior in

Model 8 and Model 9, albeit merely with a marginal statistical significance ($\beta = 0.23$, $p = 0.06$ and $\beta = 0.23$, $p = 0.07$, respectively). All of the other variables including the interaction effects and control variables did not show statistical significance in predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior.

The indices of partial moderated mediation showed that each respective confidence interval of regulatory focus excluded zero, which initially indicated no statistical significance (Hayes, 2018). A closer analysis of the conditional effects in Table 7 revealed that similar to previously, higher prevention focus seemed to magnify the mediation. The increasing effect of 0.04 to 0.17 indicated that the indirect effect was stronger for individuals exhibiting a large level of such focus as opposed to those exhibiting a lower level. For individuals with higher promotion focus as opposed to those without, the effect size seemed to decrease from 0.19 to 0.03. However, all of these effects' bootstrap confidence intervals excluded zero with the exception of low promotion focus. Hypothesis 4b and 4d, hence, did not find statistical support.

Table 7. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial behavior moderated by prevention focus.

Notes: Promotion focus held constant at mean (5.021). Low = one standard deviation below the mean; high = one standard deviation above the mean; *BootSE* = bootstrap standard error; *BootLLCI* = bootstrap 90% lower limit confidence interval; *BootULCI* = bootstrap 90% upper limit confidence interval.

| Prevention focus | Effect | <i>BootSE</i> | <i>BootLLCI</i> | <i>BootULCI</i> |
|------------------|--------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Low (4.146) | 0.041 | 0.133 | -0.134 | 0.285 |
| Mean (5.448) | 0.106 | 0.098 | -0.011 | 0.295 |
| High (6.750) | 0.170 | 0.144 | -0.007 | 0.444 |

Table 8. Regression results of conditional indirect effects on employee entrepreneurial behavior moderated by promotion focus.

Notes: Prevention focus held constant at mean (5.448). Low = one standard deviation below the mean; high = one standard deviation above the mean; *BootSE* = bootstrap standard error; *BootLLCI* = bootstrap 90% lower limit confidence interval; *BootULCI* = bootstrap 90% upper limit confidence interval.

| Promotion focus | Effect | <i>BootSE</i> | <i>BootLLCI</i> | <i>BootULCI</i> |
|-----------------|--------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Low (3.984) | 0.186 | 0.134 | 0.005 | 0.427 |
| Mean (5.021) | 0.106 | 0.098 | -0.011 | 0.295 |
| High (6.147) | 0.026 | 0.131 | -0.139 | 0.274 |

Nevertheless, this exception showed that Hypothesis 4d found statistically significant support for at least some individuals. The indirect effect of individuals with low promotion focus and average as well as high prevention focus excluded zero, the latter of which is not displayed in Table 7 (lower limit confidence interval = 0.01, upper limit confidence interval = 0.43 and lower limit confidence interval = 0.01, upper limit confidence interval = 0.59, respectively; both bootstraps with confidence 90%). Thus, this indirect effect increased with those individuals exhibiting higher prevention focus. This occurred despite comparatively large bootstrap standard errors, which could provide a fruitful avenue for future endeavors. However, since this empirical study aims at a high academic standard and this only occurred at extreme and not at average levels, Hypothesis 4d remained as not supported.

4.5 Post-hoc analysis

Subsequent to describing the results of the main analysis, I point out different aspects of a post-hoc analysis. In all of the following models, the previously incorporated control variables gender and age were included to uphold consistency. It should be noted that omitting these from the models did not produce significantly different results unless reported. First, it could be interesting to take a look at the manipulation check in a role of mediating the indirect effect of manipulation on affective commitment. It is also important to note here, that this setup did not change the structure of the conceptual model. Similar to before, the moderation occurred in the first stage of the prior mediation and, hence, on the path before affective commitment.

A simple mediation model with perceived construal fit as an independent variable, manipulation check as a mediator and affective commitment as a dependent variable revealed the following results. As expected, perceived construal fit was highly significantly different from zero in predicting the manipulation check ($\beta = 3.31, p < 0.001$). The manipulation check as a combination of all three answer possibilities in a mediating role had a positive effect on affective commitment but with no statistical significance ($\beta = 0.24, p > 0.1$). However, when including regulatory focus as a moderator of the effect of the manipulation check on affective commitment, the results demonstrated that while promotion focus did not have a significant impact, prevention focus indeed had a statistically significant positive interaction effect ($\beta = 0.55, p < 0.01$). The index of partial moderated mediation of the conditional indirect effect supported this (lower limit confidence interval = 0.84, upper limit confidence interval = 2.72; bootstrap with confidence 90%).

For the simple mediation model with manipulation check as a mediator but with employee entrepreneurial intention as a dependent variable, the results were similar to above with the exception of gender having a marginally significant negative impact on intention ($\beta = -0.55, p = 0.09$). This same mediation but with both types of regulatory focus as moderating variables revealed that again prevention focus had a significant impact. First, it had a significant direct negative impact on intention ($\beta = -1.56, p < 0.01$). Second, it had a positive impact on the effect of manipulation check on intention as well as on the mediation (direct: $\beta = 0.43, p < 0.01$; mediation: lower limit confidence interval = 0.46, upper limit confidence interval = 2.56; bootstrap with confidence 90%).

Running this same model with employee entrepreneurial behavior as a dependent variable yielded a different result, contrary to the previous two models. In the base version without a moderator, the manipulation check in its direct effect as well as in the mediation was significantly different from zero in predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior (direct: $\beta = 0.51, p < 0.01$; mediation: lower limit confidence interval = 0.65, upper limit confidence interval = 2.76; bootstrap with confidence 90%). When including regulatory focus as a moderating variable, the results for prevention focus were similar to above with regard to the impact on the direct effect and the mediation. However, promotion focus also had a statistically significant positive impact on the direct effect and the mediation (direct: $\beta = 0.29, p < 0.05$; mediation: lower limit confidence interval = 0.15, upper limit

confidence interval = 1.90; bootstrap with confidence 90%). The impact on the moderation of the direct effect remained only with marginal significance when excluding the control variables ($\beta = 0.25$, $p = 0.06$).

5 GENERAL DISCUSSION

Subsequent to highlighting results of the analysis of the data, in the following chapter I discuss these findings by aiming to generate meaningful insights. This encompasses theoretical as well as practical implications. Furthermore, limitations and feasible future research are pointed out by going into detail why I failed to obtain certain expected and somewhat self-evident results.

5.1 Theoretical implications

In general, this study aims to contribute to the concept of construal fit and academic field of employee entrepreneurship by connecting and, hence, advancing them. Specifically, I try to find out what kind of impact not only construal fit but the mere perception of it has on employee entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior and what role commitment as well as regulatory focus have in this relationship.

Perception as an additional metalevel of construal fit. The main first implication is the extension of literature that showed that fit of construal levels has a positive impact on multiple outcomes (e.g. Bar-Anan et al., 2006; Fujita et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2009). In this study, I extend on this theory by showing that construal fit is not only important in its very direct form in conjunction with a dyadic relationship, but also in its indirect form on a perception level. This is partly shown by demonstrating that those individuals that perceived a construal fit displayed more affective commitment to a fictional company than those that perceived a construal misfit. Because there were issues with the discriminant validity due to partially low average variance extracted and a combination of low variance explained and an insignificant F-value, this finding is to be interpreted with caution. Nonetheless, I claim that this finding is very important. While there are a few studies that showed that in addition to construal fit, the perception of it has an impact on a few outcomes, to my knowledge there is no study that explicitly analyzed this (e.g. Berson & Halevy, 2014; Shamir, 1995; Stephan et al., 2010). By expanding the construal fit framework to a metalevel of perception, previous findings of a construal fit for instance predicting job satisfaction or heightened emotional reactions may be even more relevant due to the added domain metalevel of perception (e.g. Fujita et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010).

This study supports those findings and suggests that these should be expanded and looked at from the level of a mere perception. In addition, this could be applied motivation generally and may thus be highly relevant for the literature on entrepreneurship for willingness to sacrifice effort, time and other resources to a group's commitment (Shamir et al., 1998).

Perceived construal fit and affective commitment. This connects to the second implication that construal fit has an influence on affective commitment. Notwithstanding the mentioned statistical issues, this supports Berson and Halevy's (2014) notion that group commitment is higher when construal fit is present. Additionally, it extends this to affective commitment in a more general sense. While not directly tested for, the mechanism of construal fit positively affecting the three aspects making up affective commitment was supported. This includes the idea that construal fit leads to higher identification with (Meyer et al., 2002), involvement in (Berson & Halevy, 2014; Shamir et al., 1998) and enjoyment of membership in the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Fisher, 2010).

Regulatory focus as an interaction effect. Moreover, in this empirical study I hypothesize that the effect of the perception of construal fit on affective commitment and thus also the mediation is moderated through regulatory focus. Both types of regulatory focus failed to be significantly different from zero in moderating the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment and in moderating the mediation. Nevertheless, two confidence intervals did in the case of low promotion focus and the dependent variable employee entrepreneurial behavior exclude zero. Additionally, the confidence intervals generally tended to be closer to excluding zero on the more extreme parameters of the moderators despite a lower sample size and, hence, a higher standard error. While this indicates that these effects could indeed be of statistically significant nature with a larger sample size, the moderated mediation mostly failed to find statistical significance. This at the very least shows that contrary to Higgins's (1997; 1998) theory of regulatory focus claiming to modulate all behavior, it affected neither the direct effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment nor the indirect effect on employee entrepreneurial intention or behavior in the present study. Interestingly, this also calls Johnson et al.'s (2010) notion into questions, partly based on Markovits et al.'s (2008) finding, that promotion focus has a direct positive effect on affective commitment, because the hierarchical regression model did not show such an effect to be of statistical significance.

As can be observed with entrepreneurial behavior as a dependent variable, promotion focus seems to have a direct positive effect on such behavior. This shows, hence, that regulatory focus does seem to predict entrepreneurial behavior at least partly. While this does not take place in the hypothesized mechanism, it does so in a more direct way. Because promotion-focused individuals display an increased likelihood of exhibiting entrepreneurial behavior, the mechanism of it being linked to an intrinsic orientation towards gains is supported (Shah et al., 1998; Higgins, 1997).

The role of affective commitment. Furthermore, affective commitment was shown to have a significant positive impact on entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior of employees, albeit only marginally so on the former. This supports previous studies' notion of connecting commitment, specifically affective commitment, to aspects of employee's intentions and behavior. In a general sense, the result of the regression that both intention and behavior were positively influenced by affective commitment is a reasonable finding, as affective commitment can be seen as a force to achieve a common goal and thus as essential to entrepreneurship (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For the case of entrepreneurial intention, this result supports the idea that affectively committed employees are self-inclined (Johnson et al., 2010) and place more emphasis on a dyad relationship in congruence with the leader-member-exchange theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Additionally, the idea of heightened involvement and confidence leading to higher willingness to expend resources (Shamir et al., 1998) and enjoyment possibly mitigating anticipated additional strain (Meyer et al., 2002; Schiffrin & Nelson, 2010) was supported.

In this study, I additionally distinguish between employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior, because intention can be argued to more readily arise than the more tangible behavior (LaPiere, 1934). I also suggest that similar to such intention, entrepreneurial behavior is positively affected by affective commitment. By demonstrating this with robust statistical findings, I reinforce different notions of earlier empirical research by connecting affective commitment to entrepreneurial behavior. This includes mechanisms of for instance enjoyment leading to more innovative as well as proactive behavior (Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2011; Chughtai, 2013; Strauss et al., 2009) and involvement leading to an overly positive outlook (Johnson et al., 2008; Tax et al., 1998).

Affective commitment acting as a mediator. Interestingly, the mediation results points to somewhat ambiguous results. The indirect effect was only found to be statistically significant for the model with behavior as a dependent variable, which thus led to Hypothesis 3b being supported. On the one hand, this is somewhat surprising as behavior as discussed is likely to be more tangible, i.e. individuals would more likely intend something than actually pursue it. On the other hand, maybe the increased significance of behavior as opposed to intention leads individuals to place more weight on consequences and, hence, increase the salience of them. In either case, this provides a new angle to the idea of construal fit impacting employee entrepreneurial behavior through a mediator, specifically through affective commitment (Chen et al., 2018; Hallam et al., 2016). While construal-level theory was linked to leadership before (Berson et al., 2015), to my knowledge this main contribution is one of the first in explicitly linking it to entrepreneurial behavior.

Implications of the post-hoc analysis. Lastly, I want to discuss the findings and connect them to the outcomes of the post-hoc analysis. Interestingly, the manipulation check as a mediator of the effect of perceived construal fit on affective commitment failed to be significantly different from zero. As reported, Hypothesis 1 found marginal support for the manipulation, but stating the fit or misfit does not seem to have an effect. This indicates that a conscious knowledge of a misfit does not necessarily predict affective commitment while subconsciously it may. When including the moderation of regulatory focus on the latter part of the model, prevention focus had a significant positive impact. This supports my previous notion of Hypothesis 2b, in which I state that prevention focus has a magnifying impact on the effect of construal fit on affective commitment. This effect was replicated for employee entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior and shows that while Hypotheses 4c and 4d were not supported, prevention focus does seem to have some magnifying effect on the relationship of construal fit and each dependent variable. Additionally, for the case of behavior as a dependent variable, promotion focus also had a significant positive impact, which contradicts my notion of promotion focus having a negative impact. Reasons for this effect could include that individuals with promotion focus are encouraged by a perceived construal fit. This could be a fruitful avenue for future research.

5.2 Practical implications

Given the rapid pace of today's economies in geographic, digital and many other terms, an engaging and at the same time innovative company could potentially have a competitive advantage over others. The importance of employee entrepreneurship in being innovative is substantiated for instance by studies linking it to companies' growth and financial performance (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Zahra & Covin, 1995). This empirical study offers a novel perspective for a mechanism to encourage employee entrepreneurial behavior. The following section summarizes the findings and connects them with this and other relevant practical implications.

Importance of perception of construal fit. As an initial concept, construal fit has been demonstrated to have various effects, including an impact on group commitment (Berson & Halevy, 2014) and motivation (Shamir et al., 1998). This empirical study tries to understand if any of such relationships would also hold true for a perception of a construal fit. As Hypothesis 1 received marginal support, this confirms the notion of perception of construal fit indeed having an impact. This is highly relevant, given that the perception of such a fit is experienced more often and thus shaped more deeply. For instance, in Berson and Halevy's study (2014), which did find statistically significant effects of construal fit, the methodology to capture such fit partly looks into feedback or speeches. While this type of communication is highly targeted, it occurs infrequently. Conversations with colleagues on the other hand, occur much more frequently, quite possibly on a daily basis for an average employee. Simply by the sheer amount of such interactions, the perception would build more easily than with the infrequent interactions with supervisors or other employees higher up in the hierarchy.

Additionally, I would argue that the quality of the perception could vary. While this experiment described a well-known colleague, whose ideas are taken into consideration, a real colleague's comment may be placed more emphasis on. Given that a fictional colleague's comment is still important in forming the subject's own opinion, which ultimately results in affective commitment and higher entrepreneurial behavior, this is very significant. It shows how careful companies have to be when trying to generate engaged employees. Limited targeted efforts may not be sufficient as relatively random encounters may cause contrary perceptions.

Engaged employees. The impact of affective commitment has two main implications. First, the positive link to employee entrepreneurial intention and behavior shows

that having an engaged workforce can be highly important for companies trying to stay innovative. Second, because Hypothesis 3b found statistical support, it acts as a mediator between a perceived construal fit and entrepreneurial behavior. This mediation indicates a mechanism for how companies may not only help employees identify with, but also to involve themselves in and enjoy their membership in the organization to a higher degree. It also shows that this leads to higher entrepreneurial behavior. Given that affective commitment is a subjective emotional state rather than an objective rational way of weighing opportunities, this could help companies to incentivize employees to tolerate additional resource expenses.

Maximizing perceived construal fit. While it was shown that entrepreneurial behavior leads to better outcomes (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Zahra & Covin, 1995), this may not be relevant for all industries. For those industries in highly volatile environments, it is even more so crucial (Calantone et al., 2002). As shown in this study, raising perceived construal fit can be a viable strategy to raise employees' affective commitment. This consequently would have an impact on entrepreneurial behavior, generating innovative outcomes. Additionally, an engaged workforce potentially is a self-perpetuating mechanism. Should employees perceive a construal fit, they are likely to influence others in this through frequent interactions. Extending the mechanism of the illusion of explanatory depth (Rosenbach, Taylor, & Youndt, 2018), construal fit is a rather intuitive concept, which the individual would not necessarily need to comprehend to discuss with colleagues. Through these interactions, employees are affected and themselves affect others in their opinion and decision-making. Due to this mechanism combined with affective commitment mediating the indirect effect of perceived construal fit on at least employee entrepreneurial behavior, it can be important for companies to ensure appropriate communication strategies. This aspect of communication can be crucial due to its effect of transferring to lower levels. Leaders in particular should thus focus on an accurate way of delivering their message according to the distance of their audience. This could span from emails over meetings to speeches in front of large audiences. For instance, when a large manufacturer holds a quite common quarterly assembly for all employees including those of a lower level in the hierarchy, the content needs to vary according to the deliverer. Profits and sales targets should be discussed by leaders lower in the hierarchy, while those higher up should focus on improvements in delivering the strategy.

Impact of regulatory focus. Furthermore, regulatory focus in both promotion as well as prevention focus were not identified as significant influences in either moderating the effect of perceived construal fit on affect commitment or to moderate the suggested mediation. This should be interpreted with caution, because there are some restrictions on the results as discussed in the next section. Nevertheless, the present results point to both types of regulatory focus as not seeming to play a highly important role in moderating any effects. This could mean that companies do not necessarily have to incorporate such character tendencies in the targeting interventions. The insignificant results further imply that employees with each of these types of regulatory focus would most likely show similar behavior regarding affective commitment. This also holds true for the suggested mediation effect with the exception of very low levels of promotion focus. As these individuals are most likely rare, companies should be aware of them, but may have difficulty in targeting them specifically. Notwithstanding this main analysis on moderated effects, the results show that promotion focus has a significant direct effect on predicting employee entrepreneurial behavior. This is interesting as it advises companies to especially take these types of employees into account when trying to engage them in entrepreneurial activities.

5.3 Limitations and future research

Quality and quantity of sample. Given that multiple hypotheses were not found to be supported, it could be interesting to see whether there were any limiting factors as to why this occurred. First and foremost, this empirical study relied on a specific group of students. According to research, this should not be an issue per se (e.g. Falk & Heckman, 2009; Höst, Regnell, & Wohlin, 2000). Nevertheless, a student sample constrains the external validity of my findings. More specifically, one issue could be that students in general are more prone to desire a construal fit than people working in a job for a longer period of time. Naivety and inexperience may play a role here as students may place more emphasis on one particular colleague's perceptions. Moreover, this is a highly specific sample group of Finnish as well as international students at one school of business of one university. This can lead to multiple biases, as the Finnish culture can be different from other cultures and thus bias the observed effects. For instance, being Finnish was significantly positively correlated with degree, i.e. Finnish students were more likely to pursue

advanced degrees and vice versa. Because both of these were equally distributed among the two samples, I chose not to include them in the regression analyses.

In addition to quality, the quantity of the sample was suboptimal. While in general a sample size of at least 100 subjects is recommended, the rule of thumb suggests thirty cases for each subgroup and variable, although the sample from variable one can be the same for variable two (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Thus, an initial sample size of sixty subjects should theoretically be sufficient at the bare minimum. Nevertheless, I chose to exclude some data points due to irrational behavior and a rather long response time. With a final sample size of forty-eight subjects and respective sizes of twenty-one and twenty-seven on either side of the manipulation, this was below the suggested minimum. Furthermore, the heterogeneity among the sample with approximately half being of Finnish descent and half of international one is large. Taking into account the suggested minimum of sixty subjects, thirty subjects of each domestic and international students in each of the manipulation groups would have most likely contributed to more robust results. A larger sample size may have, for instance, solved the issue of some effects being either marginally significant or very close to marginal significance due to large standard errors.

Model validity. Furthermore, the low sample size can also be the explanation for an inadequate discriminant validity of two variables as well as confirmatory issues regarding regulatory focus. As explained, while each of the types of regulatory focus were loading onto the same two factors suggested by underlying literature, these two factors were inadmissible for model fit analysis as AMOS did not recognize the model. Thus, I chose for each promotion and prevention focus the respective factor with the highest loadings, which then produced meaningful results in AMOS. These results were, in turn, insufficient with regard to discriminant validity of affective commitment and entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior. Hence, all of the stated results should be interpreted with caution. A larger sample size may solve not only the issue of significance or a clearer distinction of such, but also provide a better model fit as well as a more adequate model in the first place. In addition to this, regulatory focus may not have been captured to its true extent, because only one subsidiary concept of each type was included in the final model. Most likely, portraying promotion and prevention focus to their full extent could be achieved with a higher sample size (McDonald, 2014).

Improved survey. Moreover, one limitation regards the setup of the experiment. The company described in the experiment was a fictional one that the subject has no connection towards. On the one hand, this does provide the benefit of little bias of the sample with the exception of that towards manufacturing or large firms. On the other hand, affective commitment is a very personal concept that may take more than a short period of time to develop (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982 as cited by Beck & Wilson, 2000). The mechanism of a perception of a construal fit may still hold as shown in this experiment in the short-term, but it could be much stronger over time as affective commitment is an iterative process.

Future research. In addition to making the questionnaire and consequently the list of variables more precise, one could also look into deviating the model by adding other variables. In the process of doing so, the experiment may also include one or two of the other dimensions of commitment, namely continuance and normative. In addition to commitment, future research may also include other mediators into the model. Based on this study's literature research, such mediator variables could for instance include job satisfaction or organizational support (e.g. Berson & Halevy, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002). By understanding the underlying relationships more precisely, the theoretical and practical implications can be more targeted to undertake organizational changes and intervene where counterproductive structures are present.

Similar to other studies, I claim that a longitudinal analysis could be of interest. This could be connected to a field study and, in turn, aid the understanding of the importance of perception of construal fit. More specifically, there could be two ways to generate novel insights. First, a comparison between perceived and actual construal fit would be intriguing. In this study, data was excluded that showed that participants either failed to pay attention to the manipulation or failed to comprehend the context. In a field study, research could first measure the construal fit present and subsequently ask subjects to which degree they perceive construal fit to be present. When remaining with the logic of this study, this data could then be compared to affective commitment and exhibited employee entrepreneurial intention or behavior. The analysis would provide insights into how actual and perceived construal fit differ and how this applies to the relationship of affective commitment and entrepreneurial behavior. This would help companies to understand if construal fit is the underlying issue or whether it is the perception of such that

causes employees to engage or disengage from further innovating the company's products or processes. Second, an intervention study could be of interest that measures the effect of a change of communication. Three measurements could be taken from a given company displaying construal misfit. The initial data set would be made up of characteristics before the intervention. The second one could consist of data generated shortly after the intervention targeting the short-term effects. A third set would measure the long-term effects. This might show how construal fit and the perception of it evolve over time, as construal fit is more of an immediate concept rather than the perception of it involving more of a time lag. Additionally, the effect and thus also relevance of each on entrepreneurial behavior could be more precisely understood with such a setup.

Lastly, I want to point out alternative measures of perceived construal fit. This study's focus relied on social distance and content of communication, which could be extended to other dimensions. In the emerging phenomenon of remote working contracts, spatial distance can be important. Such a context for instance provides the conundrum of large spatial distance but not necessarily high social distance. This issue also applies to highly volatile environments such as those that start-ups commonly operate in. In small firms, the chief executive officer may act as a visionary and simultaneously set concrete targets. Moreover, it could be interesting to look into actions undertaken rather than merely communication. This for instance could look into whether a person higher up in the hierarchy operates on daily and rather concrete activities. This type of behavior constitutes a construal misfit. If observed by other employees, a perception of construal fit is consequently formed by that individual as well as inherently the employee working on the matter. All of these empirical studies would potentially provide additional aspects to the concept of construal fit as well as the perception of it.

6 CONCLUSION

In this empirical study, I have three goals in mind. First, I seek to extend the academic literature on the concept of construal fit in general. Second, I examine how entrepreneurial behavior can be stimulated in large organizations. Third, I assess how individual factors influence the relationship of perceived construal fit and entrepreneurial intention as well as behavior on two levels, commitment to the organization and regulatory focus. To realize this, I conducted an empirical study using vignettes with students from the Aalto

School of Business. Drawing on the results of this survey of 61 participants, I found partial support for the research questions. Specifically, perception of construal fit seems to have a positive indirect effect on employee entrepreneurial behavior through affective commitment, while this is not the case for entrepreneurial intention. Regulatory focus as a moderator does not find statistical support in the initial analysis but is indicated to do so in a post-hoc analysis.

This empirical study advances literature threefold. To my knowledge, it is one of the first that adds perception to the mere construal fit as a valid construct. Second, it adds that this perception indeed has a positive indirect effect on entrepreneurial behavior and that this effect is mediated by the emotional component affective commitment. Third, it shows that the impact of regulatory focus is rather marginal in the conceptual way it is implemented in this study. These findings offer interesting insights for practical applications. For instance, they highlight the importance for companies to emphasize a communication culture according to construal fit, because the mere perception is built more often through multiple interactions with colleagues on a daily basis. Additionally, the emotional component of affective commitment is important to initiate and promote entrepreneurial behavior. Future research may look into the aspect of the mediation with different types of mediators as well as conduct a field study to further manifest mechanisms such as the indirect impact of perceived construal fit on employee entrepreneurial behavior and generate new ones.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1, 1. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Notes: Pages with blue heading indicate a new page in the online layout.

Introduction:



Introduction

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for taking your time to participate in this study.

In cooperation with the Chair of Interdisciplinary Management Science of the University of Cologne, I am working on my master thesis for Aalto University. With a few minutes of your time, you are enabling me to generate data and gain theoretical as well as practical insights. This empirical study is about decision behavior.

If you are interested, the thesis including its results will be made available on Aalto's 'eThesis' web page (link: <http://epub.lib.aalto.fi/ft/ethesis/>).

This survey will take approximately 8 minutes. All answers will be handled confidentially and anonymously. Your participation is voluntary and you may choose to discontinue filling out this survey at any point. There are no right or wrong answers; this study merely aims to elicit your personal opinion. Hence, I would like you to answer honestly and truthfully. If some questions seem alike, this is due to scientific purposes.

If you have any further questions or feedback, please do not hesitate to approach me or send an email to sebastian.pfeiffer@aalto.fi.

Once again, thank you very much for your participation in this study.
Sebastian Pfeiffer

Appendix 1, 2. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Pre manipulation 1/4 (regulatory focus):

A

99

The following description may describe you not at all or very well. Please give an honest assessment to what degree do you agree with the following statements:

| | Completely disagree 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree 7 |
|---|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Rules and regulations are helpful and necessary for me. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I like to do things in a new way. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I always try to make my work as accurate and error-free as possible. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I generally solve problems creatively. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| It is important to me that my achievements are recognized and valued by other people. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I'm not bothered about reviewing or checking things really closely. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I prefer to work without instructions from others. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I like trying out lots of different things, and am often successful in doing so. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I often think about what other people expect of me. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| For me, it is very important to carry out the obligations placed on me. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Pre manipulation 2/4 (risk-propensity and proactive personality):

Are you generally a person who is fully prepared to take risks or do you try to avoid taking risks?

| Not at all willing to take risks 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Very willing to take risks 7 |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

To what degree do you agree with the following statements:

| | Completely disagree 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree 7 |
|--|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I am excellent at identifying opportunities. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I can spot a good opportunity long before others can. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| If I see something I don't like, I fix it. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Appendix 1, 3. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Pre manipulation 3/4 (proactive personality and prior experience):

| | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I am always looking for better ways to do things. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Please answer the following questions:

| | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| | Yes | No |
| Did your parents ever start a business? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Did anyone else you know start a business? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Did you ever start a business? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Did you ever work for a small or new company? | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Pre manipulation 4/4 (self-efficacy and need for achievement):

How confident do you feel in ...

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---|
| | Completely disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree | 7 |
| successfully thinking creatively? | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |
| successfully commercializing an idea or new development? | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |
| successfully identifying a new business opportunity? | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |
| successfully creating new products? | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |

It is important for me to ...

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---|
| | Completely disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree | 7 |
| pursue projects that challenge me to the limits of my ability. | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |
| personally produce work of high quality. | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |
| maintain high standards for the quality of my work. | <input type="radio"/> | | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | |

Appendix 1, 4. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Manipulation 1 (perceived construal fit):

A³⁹

Please read the following situation as carefully as possible and try to put yourself into it.

Please imagine it is your first day at work in a new company. The company is a globally active producer and a world leader in the sales of its products. At your site, around 13,000 people are employed. During the coffee break, you talk to a coworker from your team, whom you already know from a previous project at your former employer and whose opinion you value. You use the opportunity and ask him about the company and he tells you about your team leader:

"Our team leader's communication style seems fine to me. He often describes the abstract entrepreneurial vision of our company and then translates it into specific goals for our team. Personally, I think he really understands his hierarchical position within the company. For example, when he gives concrete speeches on how exactly we can take initiative and work together to find new creative solutions, I think he acts like a proper team leader should. I like how he uses detailed goals for our team and describes concrete steps that really help us to be more innovative. Honestly, I feel very satisfied with how he communicates with us."

Manipulation 2 (perceived construal misfit):

A³⁹

Please read the following situation as carefully as possible and try to put yourself into it.

Please imagine it is your first day at work in a new company. The company is a globally active producer and a world leader in the sales of its products. At your site, around 13,000 people are employed. During the coffee break, you talk to a coworker from your team, whom you already know from a previous project at your former employer and whose opinion you value. You use the opportunity and ask him about the company and he tells you about your team leader:

"Our team leader's communication style seems odd to me. He keeps on telling us about the abstract entrepreneurial vision of our company without translating it into specific goals. Quite frankly, I think he really doesn't understand his hierarchical position within the company. For example, when he tries to give vague speeches on how we need to take initiative and work together to find new creative solutions, I think he acts as if he were the company leader instead of a team leader. I would prefer if he would use some detailed goals for our team and describe some concrete steps that help us to be more innovative. Honestly, I am quite annoyed about how he communicates with us."

Appendix 1, 5. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Manipulation check:

Please highlight to which degree you agree with the following statements:

My colleague perceives the communication style of the team leader as inappropriate.

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Completely disagree 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree 7 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Based on what my colleague said, I perceive the communication style of the team leader as inappropriate.

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Completely disagree 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree 7 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Based on what my colleague said, the team leader behaves in accordance with his hierarchical position within the company.

| | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Completely disagree 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Completely agree 7 |
| <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Appendix 1, 6. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Post-manipulation 1/3 (affective commitment):

A

Please continue to imagine yourself in this situation and that you are working for the introduced company.

To what degree do you agree with the following statements?

Completely disagree

1

2

3

4

5

6

Completely agree

7

I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organization.

I think that I could easily become as attracted to another organization as I am to this one.

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.

I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.

Post manipulation 2/3 (entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial behavior):

Independent of your organizational unit, actual position or assigned task, how likely is it that you would want to manage a new division set up to ...

Completely disagree

1

2

3

4

5

6

Completely agree

7

Introduce an existing product into a new market?

Introduce a new variant of an existing product?

exploit a radical innovation?

How would you behave in this company?

Completely disagree

1

2

3

4

5

6

Completely agree

7

I would try to promote and champion ideas to others.

I would try to identify long term opportunities and threats for the company.

When large interests are at stake, I would go for the big win even when things could go seriously wrong.

XXIV

Appendix 1, 7. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Post manipulation 3/3 (entrepreneurial behavior):

| | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| I would put effort in pursuing new business opportunities. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I would first act and then ask for approval, even if I know that would annoy other people. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I would try to search out new techniques, technologies and/or product ideas. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I would try to generate creative ideas. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I would take risks in my job. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| I would try to become known as a successful issue seller. | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

Appendix 1, 8. Both versions of the survey separated by the topic of content.

Demographics 1/2:



Lastly, I would like to ask you some questions concerning general personal details. As with all parts of this survey, this is confidential.

What is your gender?

| | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| Male <input type="radio"/> | Female <input type="radio"/> | Prefer not to say <input type="radio"/> |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|

What is your age [in years]?

What is your major?

What type of degree are you pursuing?

| | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Bachelor <input type="radio"/> | Master <input type="radio"/> | PhD <input type="radio"/> |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|

Demographics 2/2:

What country were you born in?

Is English your first language?

| | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Yes <input type="radio"/> | No <input type="radio"/> |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|

Did you have difficulty in understanding the questions?

| | |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Yes <input type="radio"/> | No <input type="radio"/> |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|

If you want to participate in a lottery to win a Netflix gift card (25€), then please type your email into the following text box.

Important: Your email will be recorded, which de-anonymizes your survey.

Concluding words:



Thank you very much for participating in this study.

If you have any questions or feedback, please do not hesitate to approach me or send an email to sebastian.pfeiffer@aalto.fi.

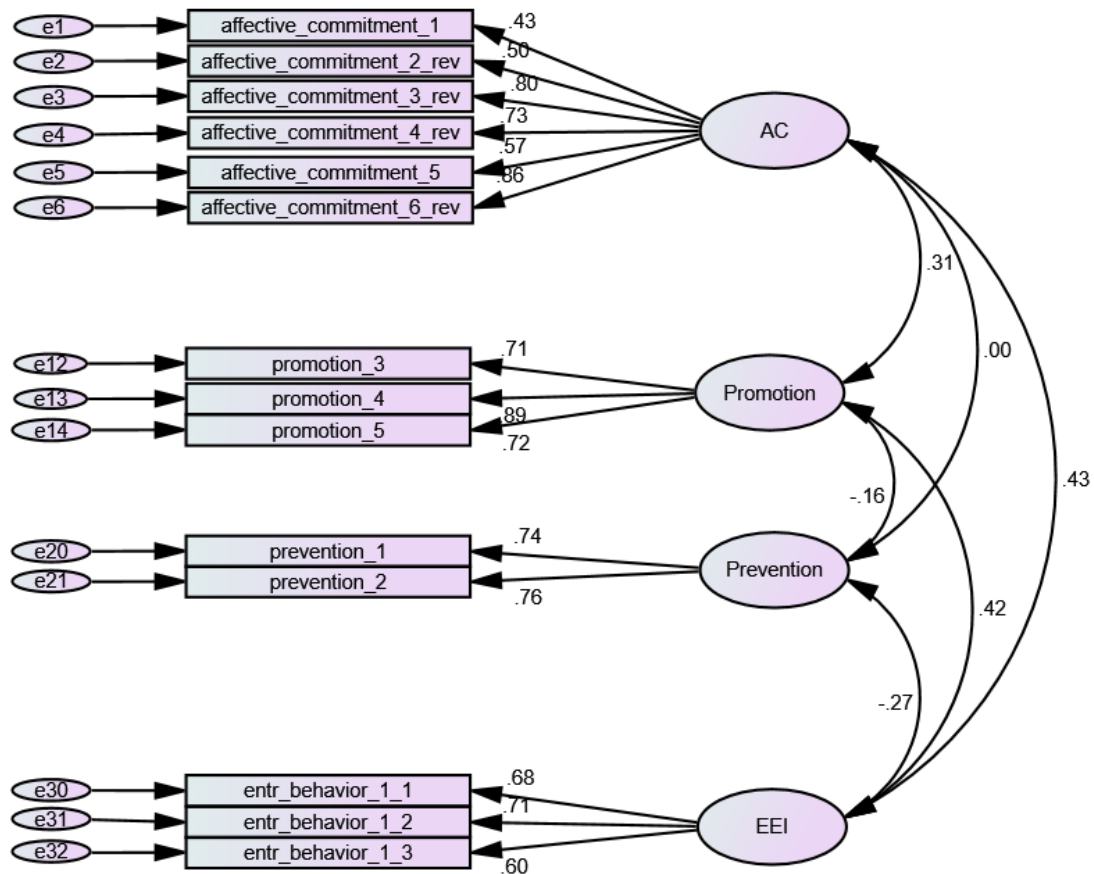
Appendix 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis.

Factor loadings of all relevant variables. Notes: χ^2 = chi-squared; n.a. = insufficient loading (factor loadings of less than 0.4 suppressed); “-” = no such item available on the scale; *df* = degrees of freedom; ¹ = second component not displayed; ² = manually excluded; KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test.

| Factor | | Affective commit- ment | Employee entrepre- neurial be- havior | Employee entrepre- neurial in- tention | Prevention focus | Promotion focus |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|--|---|---------------------|--------------------|
| Component | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 ¹ | 1 ¹ |
| Factor loading of item ... | 1 | 0.602 | 0.855 | 0.784 | 0.884 | n.a. |
| | 2 | 0.571 | 0.813 | 0.837 | 0.884 | n.a. ² |
| | 3 | 0.796 | 0.748 | 0.745 | n.a. | 0.842 |
| | 4 | 0.802 | n.a. | - | n.a. | 0.891 |
| | 5 | 0.708 | 0.872 | - | n.a. | 0.836 |
| | 6 | 0.844 | 0.873 | - | - | - |
| | 7 | - | n.a. | - | - | - |
| | 8 | - | 0.540 | - | - | - |
| | 9 | - | n.a. | - | - | - |
| KMO | | 0.771 | 0.824 | 0.650 | 0.500 | 0.700 |
| Bartlett's test of sphericity | Ap- prox- imate χ^2 | 102.149 | 112.655 | 24.475 | 17.412 | 49.070 |
| | <i>df</i> | 15 | 15 | 3 | 1 | 3 |
| | Sig- nifi- cance | <0.01 | <0.01 | <0.01 | <0.01 | <0.01 |

Appendix 3. AMOS output of standardized estimates including employee entrepreneurial intention.

Notes: Affective commitment is comprised of the items affective_commitment_1, affective_commitment_2_rev, affective_commitment_3_rev, affective_commitment_4_rev, affective_commitment_5, affective_commitment_6_rev; promotion focus is comprised of the items promotion_3, promotion_4 and promotion_5; prevention focus is comprised of the items prevention_1 and prevention_2; employee entrepreneurial intention is comprised of the items entr_behavior_1_1, entr_behavior_1_2 and entr_behavior_1_3; AC = affective commitment; EEB = employee entrepreneurial behavior; Prevention = prevention focus; Promotion = promotion focus.



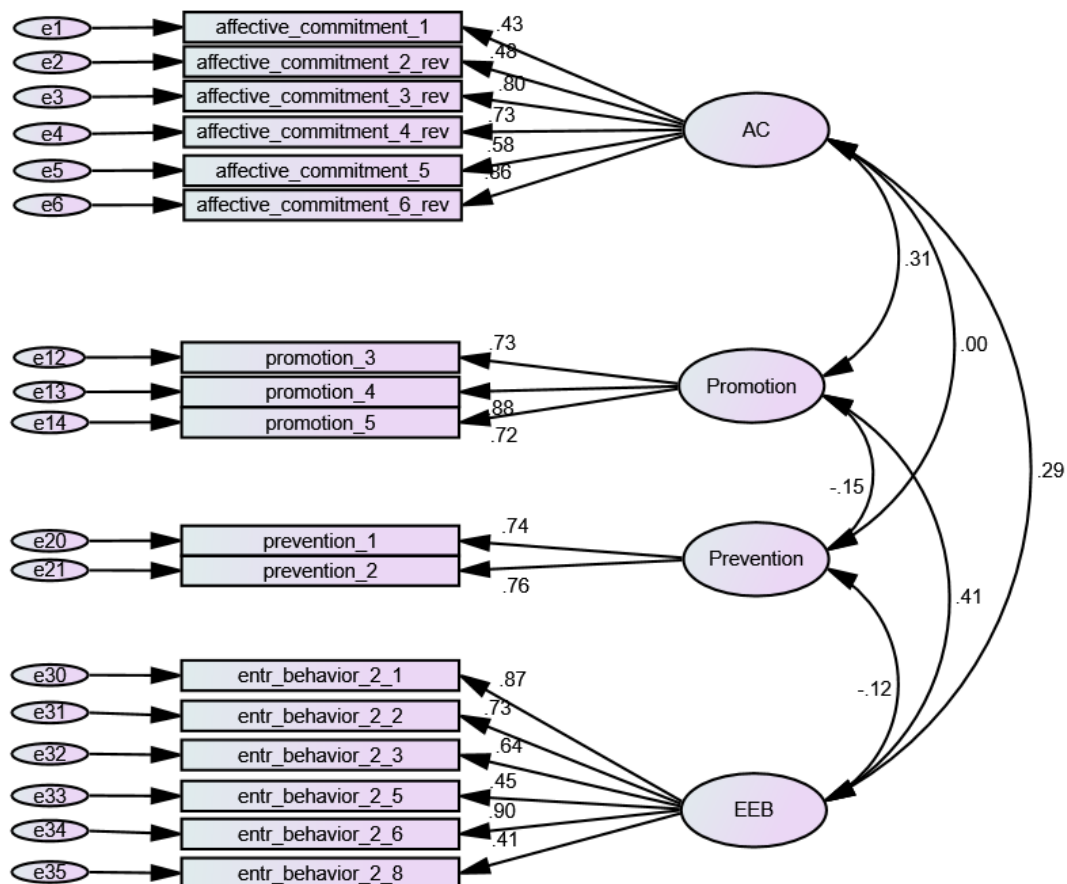
Appendix 4. Results of first-order confirmatory factor analysis including employee entrepreneurial intention.

Model fit: $\chi^2 = 78.84$; $\chi^2/df(72) = 1.10$; $RMSEA = 0.05$; $IFI = 0.97$; $TLI = 0.95$; $CFI = 0.96$; $AIC = 144.84$. Notes: AIC = Akaike information criterion; α = Cronbach's alpha; AVE = average variance extracted; CFI = comparative fit index; χ^2 = chi-squared; CR = composite reliability; df = degrees of freedom; IFI = incremental fit index; $RMSEA$ = root mean square error of approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index.

| Dimension | Item | Factor loading (standardized) |
|---|------|-------------------------------|
| Affective commitment ($\alpha = 0.821$, $CR = 0.819$, $AVE = 0.445$) | 1 | 0.43 |
| | 2 | 0.50 |
| | 3 | 0.80 |
| | 4 | 0.73 |
| | 5 | 0.57 |
| | 6 | 0.86 |
| Promotion focus ($\alpha = 0.814$, $CR = 0.821$, $AVE = 0.608$) | 3 | 0.71 |
| | 4 | 0.89 |
| | 5 | 0.72 |
| Prevention focus ($\alpha = 0.721$, $CR = 0.721$, $AVE = 0.564$) | 1 | 0.74 |
| | 2 | 0.76 |
| Employee entrepreneurial intention ($\alpha = 0.690$, $CR = 0.702$, $AVE = 0.442$) | 1 | 0.68 |
| | 2 | 0.71 |
| | 3 | 0.60 |

Appendix 5. AMOS output of standardized estimates including employee entrepreneurial behavior.

Notes: Affective commitment is comprised of the items affective_commitment_1, affective_commitment_2_rev, affective_commitment_3_rev, affective_commitment_4_rev, affective_commitment_5, affective_commitment_6_rev; promotion focus is comprised of the items promotion_3, promotion_4 and promotion_5; prevention focus is comprised of the items prevention_1 and prevention_2; employee entrepreneurial behavior is comprised of the items entr_behavior_2_1, entr_behavior_2_2, entr_behavior_2_3, entr_behavior_2_5, entr_behavior_2_6 and entr_behavior_2_8; AC = affective commitment; EEB = employee entrepreneurial behavior; Prevention = prevention focus; Promotion = promotion focus.



Appendix 6. Results of first-order confirmatory factor analysis including employee entrepreneurial behavior.

Model fit: $\chi^2 = 139.94$; $\chi^2/df(114) = 1.23$; $RMSEA = 0.07$; $IFI = 0.92$; $TLI = 0.89$; $CFI = 0.91$; $AIC = 217.94$. Notes: AIC = Akaike information criterion; α = Cronbach's alpha; AVE = average variance extracted; CFI = comparative fit index; χ^2 = chi-squared; CR = composite reliability; df = degrees of freedom; IFI = incremental fit index; $RMSEA$ = root mean square error of approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index.

| Dimension | Item | Factor loading (standardized) |
|--|------|-------------------------------|
| Affective commitment ($\alpha = 0.821$, $CR = 0.820$, $AVE = 0.445$) | 1 | 0.43 |
| | 2 | 0.48 |
| | 3 | 0.80 |
| | 4 | 0.73 |
| | 5 | 0.58 |
| | 6 | 0.66 |
| Promotion focus ($\alpha = 0.814$, $CR = 0.822$, $AVE = 0.609$) | 3 | 0.73 |
| | 4 | 0.88 |
| | 5 | 0.72 |
| Prevention focus ($\alpha = 0.721$, $CR = 0.722$, $AVE = 0.565$) | 1 | 0.74 |
| | 2 | 0.76 |
| Employee entrepreneurial behavior ($\alpha = 0.818$, $CR = 0.838$, $AVE = 0.481$) | 1 | 0.87 |
| | 2 | 0.73 |
| | 3 | 0.64 |
| | 5 | 0.45 |
| | 6 | 0.90 |
| | 8 | 0.41 |

Appendix 7, 1. Descriptive statistics and study variable intercorrelations.

Notes: *M* = arithmetic mean; *SD* = standard deviation; Significance levels: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; ¹age groups are 0 - 24 years, 25 – 29 years and 30 years and over.

| Variable | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|---|----------|-----------|-------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|----|
| 1. Trouble understanding the questions (2 = no) | 1.81 | 0.39 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Age group ¹ | 1.58 | 0.74 | 0.16 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender (2 = female) | 1.56 | 0.50 | 0.01 | 0.30* | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Degree (2 = Master) | 1.79 | 0.41 | 0.02 | 0.41** | 0.06 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Major business (1 = yes) | 0.92 | 0.28 | 0.05 | -0.17 | -0.11 | 0.03 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Born in Finland (1 = yes) | 0.58 | 0.50 | -0.08 | 0.27 | 0.19 | 0.40** | 0.05 | - | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Prior experience (1 = yes) | 1.49 | 0.24 | -0.08 | -0.06 | -0.08 | -0.02 | -0.09 | 0.19 | - | | | | | | | |
| 8. Self-efficacy | 4.57 | 1.17 | 0.12 | 0.05 | 0.01 | -0.07 | -0.06 | -0.16 | -0.34* | - | | | | | | |
| 9. Risk-propensity | 4.67 | 1.21 | 0.05 | 0.01 | -0.18 | -0.10 | -0.02 | -0.02 | -0.14 | 0.45** | - | | | | | |
| 10. Proactive personality | 4.88 | 0.86 | 0.11 | -0.03 | 0.10 | -0.09 | -0.09 | -0.28 | -0.10 | 0.57** | 0.37* | - | | | | |
| 11. Need for achievement | 6.06 | 0.80 | 0.03 | -0.10 | -0.31* | 0.12 | -0.14 | -0.14 | -0.08 | 0.13 | -0.02 | 0.19 | - | | | |
| 12. Promotion focus | 5.02 | 1.13 | 0.12 | 0.23 | 0.00 | -0.02 | -0.11 | -0.06 | -0.24 | 0.54** | 0.54** | 0.70** | 0.10 | - | | |
| 13. Prevention focus | 5.45 | 1.30 | -0.08 | 0.08 | 0.21 | 0.12 | -0.13 | -0.03 | -0.13 | 0.15 | 0.00 | 0.11 | 0.21 | -0.07 | - | |
| 14. Perceived construal fit | 0.56 | 0.50 | -0.21 | -0.10 | -0.02 | -0.14 | 0.04 | 0.19 | 0.14 | 0.05 | 0.11 | 0.14 | -0.03 | 0.17 | -0.13 | - |

Appendix 7, 2. Descriptive statistics and study variable intercorrelations.

| Variable | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|--------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| 15. Affective commitment | 3.95 | 1.08 | -0.11 | -0.02 | -0.15 | 0.00 | -0.07 | 0.00 | 0.07 | 0.21 | 0.22 | 0.23 | 0.04 | 0.19 | -0.02 | 0.26 |
| 16. Employee entrepreneurial intention | 5.09 | 1.08 | 0.09 | 0.07 | -0.20 | -0.23 | -0.21 | -0.27 | -0.06 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.36* | 0.20 | 0.32* | -0.22 | 0.18 |
| 17. Employee entrepreneurial behavior | 4.93 | 0.87 | 0.18 | 0.06 | -0.07 | -0.04 | -0.19 | -0.12 | -0.05 | 0.18 | 0.32* | 0.49** | 0.19 | 0.34* | -0.07 | -0.07 |
| | 15 | 16 | 17 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15. Affective commitment | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16. Employee entrepreneurial intention | 0.33* | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Employee entrepreneurial behavior | 0.30* | 0.51** | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |